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ABSTRACT

This collection of articles offers viewpoints on issues, concerns, and processes related to the teacher education activities of Teacher Corps Projects in the state of Texas. The first section sets forth a definition for inservice eduction, a perspective of its past, present, and future, and the impact of innovations on teacher and teacher educator inservice programs. The second section explores the theoretical issues for program development as it relates to competency based education, inservice education, and Teacher Corps. The third section deals with the experiences of specific Teacher Corps projects in Texas. The fourth section focuses on multicultural education, learning centers as alternatives for inservice education, and a proposal for a fine arts component in Teacher Corps. (Editors/JD)

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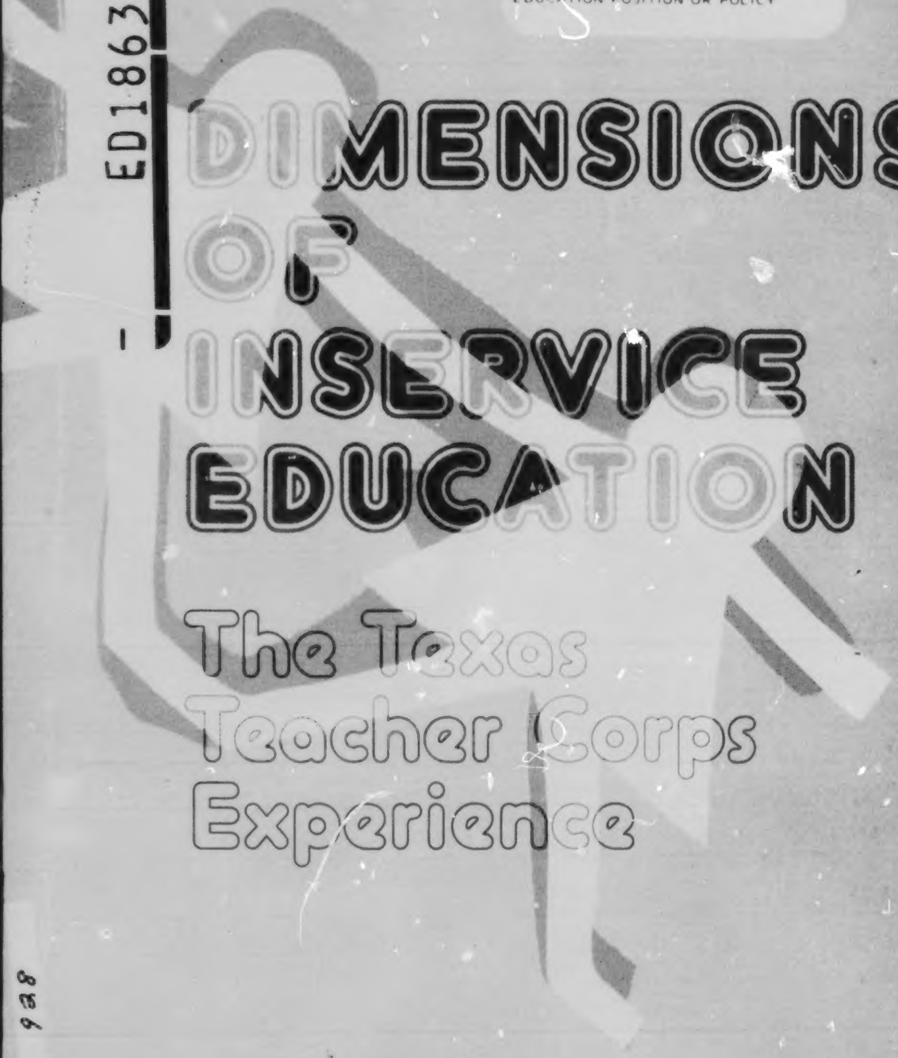

DIMENSIONS OF INSERVICE EDUCATION

The Texas Teacher Corps Experience

edited by H. Jerome Freiberg and Ruben Darío Olivarez

SP 015 928

TEXAS TEACHER CORPS NETWORK TRAINING MATERIAL

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May 1978

DIMENSIONS OF INSERVICE EDUCATION

THE TEXAS TEACHER CORPS EXPERIENCE

by
Dr. H. Jerome Freiberg
and
Dr. Rubén D. Olivarez

June, 1978

FOREWORD

Although staff development is not a new term, in recent years it has reached a level of high priority concern to teachers, administrators, support personnel and the public.

New developments, techniques in teaching, technologies for support in teaching and learning, and rapidly changing educational circumstances require that all personnel become a part of the continuous re-educational experience. Time needs for differing experiences exist; materials to support re-training efforts are essential; and determining the most efficient and effective mode for conducting extended learning is of major importance.

Education has been responsive to "forward looking" challenges of our society but to continue to be responsive, teachers must be equipped to adopt and adapt new and improved techniques and must be professionally receptive to the fact that teaching and learning, and preparing to teach is an ongoing experience.

This volume provides insight into a variety of models, experiences, and research based results. It is intended to provide a resource guide for improved in-service programs and for potential adaptations for overall staff development.

L. Harland Ford
Deputy Commissioner
Texas Education Agency

MAY 1 1980

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PREFACE

How does an educational innovation come into being? Hindsight often enables us to invent purposeful and directed reasons, particularly if we choose to apply a pattern of selective analysis to the complex maze of factors that contribute to the implementation of the particular innovation.

For example, much has been written about Mainstreaming, the major educational thrust of the late 1970's. Some of this material suggests that this concept emerged as a logical extension of civil rights and represented the growing concern of educators themselves. More likely, Mainstreaming came about because of a great deal of political pressure, which resulted in the passage of a law and the appropriation of federal and state funds. This appropriation probably encouraged educators to shift their attention to the new concept, in an effort to achieve national attention and funding.

The point is that however appropriate and useful an innovation may be, its causes usually are untraceable and its motivating factors are at times illogical. Perhaps it is only when an innovation reaches the second stage of its development that benchmarks begin to appear in the program activities, allowing systematic tracking to occur. In short, rationality and hard evidence may indeed be second-stage ingredients.

Such may be the case with the Teacher Corps Network. The seeds of this concept were probably sown during the early 1970's, as educators groped their way out of the chaos of the previous decade. After viewing the obvious failure of so many well-meaning programs, educators in the late 1960's partially withdrew from the public arena. Certainly, the period was marked by the lack of vibrant new ideas. Then, during the early 1970's, people began to talk with one another, sharing problems and gaining support and strength from this sharing. A careful reading of the agendas of national conferences held during this period reveals that sessions were increasingly devoted to the discussion and study of common problems. Embryonic clusters of concerned professionals began to emerge at various levels of education. Some states began fostering the development of Teacher Centers, which were really systems for linking people concerned about changing and improving professional practice. Although the word Network had not yet been applied to such developments, some of the elements were clearly present.

The early 1970's were marked by this groping for purpose and definition. Now, however, with the Teacher Corps Network well into its second stage of development, the time has come when a thoughtful examination is possible.

This book represents a compilation of material related to the Texas Teacher Corps Network projects. It was designed and coordinated by Drs. Freiberg and Olivarez to assist universities, schools, and communities wishing to work together to effect personal and social change. Teacher Corps is, first of all, a promoter and facilitator of the process of learning. The importance of instilling moral behavior in personal and public life is stressed in all aspects of the project. The concept itself is an aid to making operational the democratic philosophy of life, training interns and practicing teachers not only as dispensers of knowledge, but also as facilitators for the learning process. Our goal is that students will acquire a firm sense of commitment to personal, as well as community development. We believe the democratic way of life has at its core these elements of both individual and civic responsibility.

John E. Guzman, Ph.D.
Executive Secretary
Texas Teacher Corps Network

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INTRODUCTION

Concerns for the improvement of education for all children are many. These concerns stem from the recognition and realization on the part of the schools, universities and the community that the current educational system is not responding to the needs of society in its fullest potential. Until recently, we have accepted the fact that since school personnel are central to the learning accomplishments of students, more effective ways for the training of new and existing educational personnel are desirable. This desirability, however, is not to be instantly realized, for there are monumental socio-organizational issues and problems to be dealt with and resolved. Concerns in such areas as school desegregation, mulitculturalism, bilingualism, national and state legislation (P.L. 94-142 and Texas' HB 163) are posing a tremendous challenge to those involved in the preparation of educational personnel. Organizational concerns in the professional preparation of educational personnel are rooted in a) the teacher supply and demand situation; b) the ever-increasing growth and influence of teacher organizations; c) the constant and growing demands for change being made by school districts; d) state teacher certification standards; and, e) pressures internal to the structure and research/service orientations of colleges and universities. All of these issues are interrelated and cannot be resolved in isolation. The implications for universities, school districts and other agencies or organizations associated with the professional growth of educators are phenomenally complex and pose a tremendous challenge.

Teacher Corps, as one of the most significant national responses to this challenge, is preparing to enter its thirteenth year with an expanded and more elaborately defined mission. Its major goals as written in the legislation

> *to improve the educational opportunities of children from low-income areas . . . to encourage colleges and universities to broaden their teacher preparation programs . . . to encourage school districts to revise and improve their inservice training programs for educational personnel . . .*

provide for the development of collaborative approaches among universities, school districts and community representatives.

As a comprehensive school reform strategy, it proposes to create and demonstrate promising alternative ways for the professional development of new and practicing educational personnel. Its traditionally innovative characteristic has allowed for the development, testing and further growth of educational movements. It seems fitting to continue to discuss, not only in the context of current practices but also in a state of anticipation, the many issues related to the challenges and unexplored opportunities that can be provided by a Teacher Corps undertaking.

This document represents an attempt to capture issues, concerns, viewpoints and processes related to educational personnel training activity of Teacher Corps projects in the state of Texas. It is a product that symbolizes the "share and exchange" concept of the Texas Teacher Corps Network and which in part addresses individual projects' responses to the national Teacher Corps demonstration mandate.

It is divided into four major sections. The first section sets forth a definition for inservice education, a perspective of its past, present and future dimensions and the impact of innovations upon teacher and teacher educator inservice. This section also addresses the issue of teacher involvement in decisions concerning the design, development and implementation of inservice education programs.

The second section explores the theoretical issue for program development as it relates to competency based education, preservice/inservice education, and Teacher Corps. The authors develop a viable basis for the construction of an effective professional preparation program. This section also provides a thorough discussion on the Teacher Centering Concept. Because both Teacher Corps and Teacher Centers are heavily involved in preservice and inservice developmental programs, there are striking commonalities between the two agencies. Teacher Centers can be seen historically as deriving from the concepts of the Teacher Corps training complex, which has been described as "an organization designed to provide preservice and inservice education for potential and practicing educational personnel." A typology of different types of Teacher Centers is outlined which allows the reader to allude to Teacher Corps needs.

The third section deals primarily with direct experiences of Teacher Corps projects in the state of Texas. These experiences were drawn from projects at The University of Texas at Austin, Texas Southern University, Prairie View A & M and the University of Houston.

The fourth section deals with the dimensions of multicultural education in inservice training, learning centers as alternatives for inservice education and a proposition for a fine arts component for alternative staff development through Teacher Corps.

Acknowledgements are in order to the people who made this document possible: Diane Jones from the national Teacher Corps office and program officer for the Texas Teacher Corps projects provided support and guidance during the planning stages; Dr. John Guzman, Executive Secretary for the Texas Teacher Corps network; the Teacher Corps directors from the state of Texas; and, the contributing authors. We wish to thank Mrs. Lynn Reyes, documentation coordinator for the University of Houston Teacher Corps Project, and Ms. Emma Harley, Administrative Assistant for The University of Texas at Austin project for their outstanding typing and documentation activities. We also wish to thank Dr. Len Faseler for his outstanding technical advice and documentation expertise for the development of some

aspects of this document. All these individuals exemplify the caliber of people in Teacher Corps.

In the spirit of the underlying goals of the Network — sharing and collaboration — we hope that this document will assist others involved in similar ventures.

SECTION I

Chapter 1 — Inservice Education: A Definition, Delineation and Rationale. A Preliminary Statement Prepared for the Texas Education Agency

by Ben M. Harris, Professor, College of Education,
The University of Texas at Austin

Chapter 2 — Educational Staff Development and Its Implementation: Past, Present and Future

by Lorrin Kennamer, Dean, College of Education,
The University of Texas at Austin and
Gene E. Hall, Director, Research and Development
Center, The University of Texas at Austin

Chapter 3 — A Letter to Harry on Governance

by William H. Drummond, Professor
College of Education
University of Florida at Gainesville

CHAPTER 1

Inservice education is an aggregate of learning opportunities afforded the staff members of schools for purposes of improving performance in already held and assigned jobs, through a planned program.

Dr. Ben Harris has been actively involved with the Texas Education Agency in defining Inservice Education for the State of Texas. This chapter is being presented first to give the reader a perspective for each of the concluding sections. Other authors in this book add to the definition of inservice education through examples and experiences.

INSERVICE EDUCATION: A DEFINITION, DELINEATION AND RATIONALE

A Preliminary Statement Prepared for the Texas Education Agency*

By Ben M. Harris

While there are many variations in definitions of inservice education provided by scholars and practitioners, there is also a great deal of similarity, in the absence of unanimity, about the meaning of the term (Edelfelt & Johnson, 1975). A variety of closely related terms have come into common usage — staff development (Bishop, 1975; Geffert, 1976), professional growth (Harris & Bessent, 1969), on-the-job-training, continuing education ("Cooperative Educational Research Laboratory," 1975), professional development (Rea & Arnspiger, 1970). These various terms have been used at different times, by different groups or individuals, often for highly specialized purposes. This diversity of terms has created a substantial amount of confusion regarding both the nature of inservice education and its relationship to other staffing tasks and programs in elementary and secondary schools and colleges.

For purposes of planning, the following definition is proposed with a discussion of exclusion, inclusions and related concepts. This definition is essentially that presented by Harris (1963), adapted somewhat on the basis of positions taken by various scholars and practitioners in subsequent years (Bishop and Harris, 1975; Geftert, 1976; Rea and Arnspige, 1970; Rubin, 1971).

Definition

Inservice education is an aggregate of learning opportunities afforded the staff[1] members of schools for purposes of improving performance in already held and assigned jobs, through a planned program.

Exclusions

Curriculum development, materials development, and organizing and evaluating instruction activities engaged in by staff members for purposes of improving the conditions under which they perform assigned job tasks are not included as a part of inservice education, as important as these may be to the improvement of education, because they are not planned essentially as opportunities for learning.

Learning opportunities afforded for purposes of advancement to new positions or for personal satisfaction are not included as a part of inservice education, because they are not planned with direct reference to assigned jobs.

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*This statement was prepared for review and study by the Texas Education Agency Advisory Council on Staff Development. Permission for printing was secured through the Associate Commissioner's Office.

Learning opportunities accidentally or incidentally contributing to improvement in performance on the job are not included, because they are not planned with such outcomes clearly anticipated.

Inclusions

Any kind of learning experience or combination of events that are engaged in primarily to produce new and/or improved performance in job assignments is inservice education.

Experiences which lead to degrees or certification, so long as such credentials are secondary or incidental rather than the primary purposes, are a part of inservice education.

Experiences planned by any person, agency, or institution, when the outcomes anticipated are consistent with the planned program of the school organization being served, are a part of inservice education.

Activities experienced anywhere or at anytime, when the outcomes anticipated are consistent with the planned program of the school organization being served, are a part of inservice education.

Differentiations

The great array of terms sometimes treated as synonyms for inservice education (Edelfelt and Johnson, 1975) creates confusion about this crucial tasks area in school operations, but also diminishes understanding and appreciation for other very important tasks related to staffing and staff development. Figure 1 below is one effort at a taxonomic analysis of at least some of the terms being utilized. Education is seen as both formal and informal. Operating routines are distinguished from developmental efforts. Inservice education is distinguished as one of an array of staff development tasks following a scheme developed by Harris and Bessent (1969) some years ago. This scheme has significance, perhaps, in providing for clearly distinguishable staff development task areas of four kinds:

1. manpower planning;
2. staffing for instruction;
3. organizing for instruction; and,
4. inservice education.

These are not arbitrary distinctions, since the people involved, the levels of the hierarchy assuming responsibility, and the operating procedures tend to be quite different for each of these four tasks.

Evaluation of education is identified separately in Figure 1 since such efforts tend to permeate any and all aspects of the formal school operation, and they are not neatly classified as relating to one task area or another. In fact the essence of educational evaluation may well be the focus upon various sub-systems within an operation (Stufflebeam, et al., 1971).

Pre-service preparation is designated as separate and apart from inservice education, even though there are many similarities in the tasks involved. This is an accurate reflection of reality, even though it is in conflict, in part, with some recently developed concepts of "teacher renewal" arguing for increasing integration of inservice and pre-service teacher education (Stufflebeam, et al., 1975).

Staff development is used in Figure 1 to refer to only one of a variety of developmental arenas. But subsumed under this umbrella-like term are four task areas — manpower planning, staffing for instruction, organizing for instruction, and inservice education. The emphasis on staff development related to instructional programs is important for schools as instructional organizations. There are, of course, needs for non-instructional staff development as well.

Inservice education is clearly seen as only one of the staff development task areas. Purposes are generally described by the terms innovation, modification, up-grading, and exploration. These different purposes are specified to connote rather different kinds of programs to be developed having striking variations in operational features, locations, time frames, participants, and personnel. What all programs have in common as previously defined, are planned learning experiences offered to improve on-the-job performances.

The Importance of Inservice Education

Most definitions of inservice education are inadequate because they either embrace too many diverse kinds of operations with little focus, or they are needlessly restrictive regarding the who, when, where, and how of inservice education operations.[2] The need for a rather precise yet non-restrictive definition to guide legislation, policy development, planning, funding, and evaluation is made urgent by the demands for extensive improvements in teaching. The scarcity of fiscal and other resources which can be reallocated to urgent inservice education needs further emphasizes the importance of unrestrictive guidelines.

Without substantial continuing growth in competence in personnel serving in our elementary and secondary schools, the entire concept of accountability has little meaning. The heavy reliance upon people to perform nearly all tasks required for building and maintaining quality educational programs is a reality that cannot be treated lightly. It is the reality that gives inservice education both its importance and its urgency. If it were possible to run schools with less dependence upon personnel, as in some industrial operations, inservice growth would be less essential. If the competencies of school personnel were less complex in nature, limited inservice training might suffice. If a ready manpower pool of highly competent people existed, improvements in education could be wrought with less reliance upon

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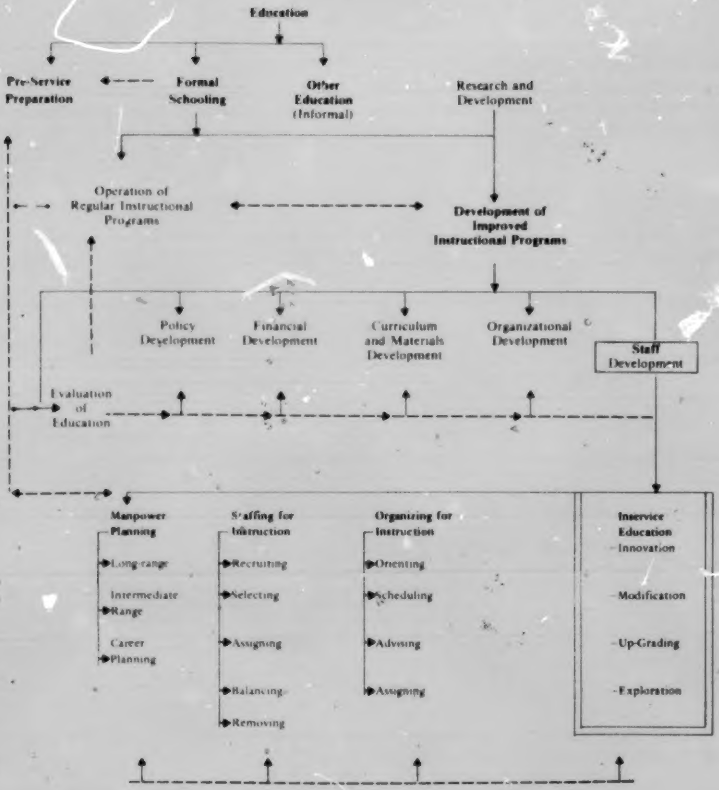
Education
Pre-Service Preparation
Formal Schooling
Other Education (Informal)
Research and Development
Operation of Regular Instructional Programs
Development of Improved Instructional Programs
Policy Development
Financial Development
Curriculum and Materials Development
Organizational Development
Staff Development
Evaluation of Education
Manpower Planning
Long-range
Intermediate Range
Career Planning
Staffing for Instruction
Recruiting
Selecting
Assigning
Balancing
Removing
Organizing for Instruction
Orienting
Scheduling
Advising
Assigning
Inservice Education
Innovation
Modification
Up-Grading
Exploration

Figure I. A Taxonomic Analysis of Selected Terms Relating Inservice Education and other Educational Task Areas.

inservice education growth. If fewer changes in the character of the educational system were required in the near future, inservice education could be less of a concern. If the present personnel who are staffing our schools had all come through rigorous four or five year programs of preservice preparation, inservice preparation might be less urgent. Were futurists to assure that extensive retirements and withdrawals from teaching would permit much restaffing of our schools in the near future, then preservice rather than inservice education might be the more urgent need.

None of these conditions seem to prevail — past, present, or future. Significant improvement of education cannot be accomplished, it would seem, without a major programmatic effort at the inservice education of personnel in all elementary and secondary schools.

A Rationale for a Limiting Definition

The definition of inservice education provided above is stated with great care to insure a focus upon a broad array of on-the-job educational needs of personnel in schools, while limiting that focus in clear and unequivocal ways. The key terms in this definition are *planned program, learning opportunities, staff, purposes, performance,* and *jobs*. Each of these terms, properly defined, provides the basis for clearly including as well as excluding certain kinds of operations from inservice education programs.

Planned program implies systematic procedures, carefully specified objectives, official review, and evaluation of outcomes. While planning may be on various levels — state, region, district, school or even individual — and who is involved in the planning is not defined, the term implies that planning is official, high quality, and programmatic.

Learning opportunities imply that objectives are instructional in nature rather than operational. The central focus of any and all aspects of inservice education should be the promotion of learning by personnel involved. This term also implies a duality of responsibility, with opportunities to be afforded by the planning agent(s) for use by personnel in order that they might learn. Obviously, learning occurs only within the individual and is inevitably an individual matter regardless of the form of the program.

Staff is a term that clearly implies that the clients or recipients of the inservice education opportunities hold official positions with an educational organization. The term can be broadened to include certified, paraprofessional, and classified personnel or more narrowly defined to embrace inservice needs of only instructional personnel. School board members, while not salaried staff members, should be embraced by this term because of their official responsibilities. Whether parents serving in volunteer capacities should be included is an important open question.

Purpose is a term that implies intended outcomes. Many efforts can effect the quality of education in a variety of ways. Inservice education contributes in a unique and crucial way that relates to producing improved performances in personnel. Purposes relating to morale of personnel, recruiting and selecting personnel, curriculum revision, and many others can impact the quality of education, but they involve substantially different kinds of operations even when common outcomes are shared.

Performance is the term used to describe the kinds of outcomes expected from inservice education. The implication is that behavior is changed, but even more explicitly, that behavior changes are relevant to educational quality, and that change occurs in directions that assure improved education for children and youth. Hence, knowledge added is of little interest as an inservice education outcome unless it is knowledge that can be expected to improve the way a staff member performs. Skills and attitudes, as well as knowledges when they form aggregates of related behaviors that can be directly related to quality education, are performances sought as inservice outcomes.

Job is a term that implies assigned responsibilities. Inservice education outcomes must relate to improving performance in assigned responsibilities. Personal interests of staff members are highly relevant when job related, but may have little importance otherwise. The job-relatedness of inservice education also assures attending to differences in individuals as unique job holders. Furthermore, job-relatedness emphasizes the jointness of responsibility of both job-holder and the organization in which he or she works for mutually appropriate inservice education.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Staff members may be defined in various ways without changing the essential character of inservice education. Typically the staff includes all professional and paraprofessional regular employees. Sometimes classified or non-professional personnel are also included.

[2] Note: Policy provisions in Texas as approved by the State Board of Education illustrate such a highly restrictive definition by specifying only three sources of experience — local district, Education Service Center, or state agency.

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CHAPTER 2

Staff development involves planned activities for the instructional improvement of professional staff members. Those included are teachers, librarians, counselors, principals, supervisors, superintendents, college faculty and administrators.

Dr. Lorrin Kennamer and Dr. Gene Hall have viewed the past, present and future dimensions of inservice education and the impact of innovations upon teacher and teacher educator inservice. The reader is given a historical perspective usually missing in our discussion of trends and issues of inservice education. The authors challenge some of our present assumptions about the role and development of inservice education and offer some questions for future thought.

EDUCATIONAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT AND ITS IMPLEMENTATION: PAST, PRESENT AND FUTURE

Lorrin Kennamer and Gene E. Hall
The University of Texas at Austin

The educational historians of tomorrow are surely going to record the 1960's and 1970's as the "Age of Innovation." So much has been included in this most recent age of change: team teaching, ETC, the middle school, computer-assisted instruction, non-graded schools, Individualized Guided Education (IGE), performance contracting, new curricular designs, competency-based teacher education, etc. All have been designed to help remove the "ills" of the schools. There have been many ideas — each of them, and their advocates, have required that the practicing teacher receive inservice education.

How else can we have expected the practitioner in the field to implement these many expectations? Or, have we expected too much?

The term staff development is broadly inclusive, as illustrated by the use of the following terms:

> staff development, inservice education, program improvement, faculty development, training assistance, inservice management, training programs, continual professional growth, professional development, continual updating, teacher growth, educational renewal, teacher professional growth, personal expansion, and educational personnel development.

All of these can be included within the following broad definition:

Definition

Staff development involves planned activities for the instructional improvement of professional staff members. Those included are teachers, librarians, counselors, principals, supervisors, superintendents, college faculty and administrators.

What are the purposes and assumptions of staff development?

It is generally agreed that inservice education and staff development have the same broad purposes:

—To correct deficiencies
—To provide for continual learning
—To keep pace with change
—To increase efficiency

—To develop additional technical skills
—To aid implementation of innovations
—To develop human skills
—To bridge the disparity between preservice preparation and the real world — action in the schools
—To provide opportunities for self-renewal
—To establish a professional floor — a minimum level of teacher and administrator performance based on progress in the various disciplines

A National Education Association publication, *Rethinking Inservice Education*, states the necessary assumptions underlying staff development:

1. An effective inservice program for teachers and other school personnel is essential to improve the quality of school experiences for students.
2. Inservice teacher education needs to be reconceptualized to be consistent with the changing role of teachers.
3. Reconceptualizing the inservice education of teachers is timely.
4. Teachers want and need inservice education.
5. Teacher organizations should exert initiative in reconceptualizing the inservice education of teachers.
6. A collaborative effort, including teacher organizations, colleges and universities, state departments of education, and school administrators is essential to reconceptualize inservice education.
7. Inservice teacher education should be designed to further professionalize teaching.

The need

Harris and Bessent have stressed the need for and importance of inservice education:

1. Preservice preparation of professional staff members is rarely ideal and may be primarily an introduction to professional preparation rather than professional preparation as such.
2. Social and educational change makes current professional practices obsolete or relatively ineffective in a very short period of time.
3. Coordination and articulation of instructional practices require changes in people. Even when each instructional staff member is functioning at a highly professional level, employing an optimum number of the most effective practices, such an instructional program might still be relatively uncoordinated from subject to subject and poorly articulated from year to year.

4. Other factors argue for inservice education activities of rather diverse kinds. Morale can be stimulated and maintained through inservice education and is a contribution to instruction in itself, even if instructional improvement of any dynamic kind does not occur.

Therefore a staff development program is not only a tool of progress but can also be a symbol of faith that individuals *can* be improved.

Changed emphases in staff development

The concept of staff development is not new. Ralph Tyler has noted how the idea is an old one yet has changed in emphasis through time.

From 1850 to 1870, inservice education depended upon county teachers' institutes of two to three day's duration. The process was remedial — including a review of the subjects taught by the teachers. During the period from 1880 to World War I, inservice education changed and was offered in summer courses on the campuses of normal schools. Teachers would gather there to hear "great experts" in the teaching of different subjects. These programs featured a wide range of specialists in the different subject matter areas.

From World War I to the 1930's, the focus was more on the quantitative standards for teaching certificates. By this time, the bachelor's degree was required for certification and the majority of teachers with two-year college preparation were returning to the teacher's colleges to get a baccalaureate and certificate. Therefore, inservice work was aimed at filling gaps for completion of the degree. At this time, the role of the high school was being re-examined by such study groups as the Eight-Year Study, the Committee on the Study of Adolescence and subject-oriented committees.

Inservice work utilized a new invention called the "workshop" in the period from the 1930's to World War II. Teachers used these workshops to study the major curriculum projects that had developed from studies of the preceding years. From 1945 to the present, there has been a continuation of workshops with the emergence of a new series of national curriculum studies. Inservice was primarily course completion to meet certification requirements. Only recently has inservice work given attention to special problems within the schools as planned for the implementation of the various studies.

One is tempted to say that, to a certain extent, the pendulum has swung back to the local scene. As in the nineteenth century when local county institutes were involved in inservice education, so is there a current emphasis on the local school system as the site for inservice work.

Accelerating Change on the Campus

The need for inservice programs in Colleges of Education is as great as the need for school-based programs. Post-secondary education in America today is bursting at the seams — not only with the numbers of people involved, but also with new types of programs and diverse alternatives.

The change of terminology from "higher education" to "post-secondary education" is significant. We have departed four years in residence for every student seeking higher education, with each student taking the same set of courses in the same sequence.

Now we have "drop-in, drop-out, and drop-back in" phenomena in higher education and we speak of education as being necessary and available throughout one's adult life. We have seen a change from one's entire education being completed on a single campus to a time when the student may acquire credits in a great variety of ways from a number of places. Admission patterns have gone from rigid to open, with various patterns now available.

College degree programs were once internally-based. We have the era of the traditional campus setting with an internal degree as well as a growing number of external degree programs. Figure 1 summarizes the broad changes that have taken place in this country.

From the 1600's to 1800, higher education's basic goals included preparation for the professions of law, medicine, teaching, and the ministry. From the early 1800's to the early part of the twentieth century, a quite different focus was on the application of knowledge and research to the problems of society and on the beginnings of democratization of higher education. This second era of higher education was followed by another, concentrated in 1950-1970. Those years saw the mass expansion and availability of higher education in America, along with major funding support of research in universities. In this current decade, we have a continuation of all that has gone before (including examples of the classical curriculum) as well as non-traditional experiments as add-on phenomena.

Administrators and faculty on the traditional campus can ignore only at their jeopardy the many new alternatives in higher education. There are demands for more flexibility, a greater variety of opportunities, and patterns adapted more to the learner's personal work and time schedule. These demands will be met by some institution regardless of whether it is in the existing institution or the emerging new ones. The right to offer the academic degree is no longer solely that of the traditional institution. Instructional help is now available in a variety of locations and forms, a movement begun and generally not led by the traditional campus. It is advantageous to the campus community to listen and respond to these new educational requests from the schools and society. It is desirable to be acquainted with the various ways other agencies are meeting these requests to the exclusion of the campus community.

Can it truly be said that we are in the fourth major era in American higher education — an era which holds far greater variety and potential change than the previous three and thus a greater need to update faculty?

	1600's-1700's	1800's-Early 1900's	1950-1970	1970's
GOALS	Preparation for Professions	Application of Knowledge & Direction of Research on Society's Problems	Mass Availability of Higher Education/Major Support of Research	Universal Post-Secondary Education with Numerous Alternative Routes
THRUST	Dominantly Private Universities, Public, State Universities	-Rise of Land Grant Colleges -Extension Beginnings	-Rise of Systems of Higher Education -Rise of Regional State Colleges (former Teachers Colleges) -Rise of Junior/Community Colleges -Upper Division Colleges -Extension Education/Evening Colleges -Adult Continuing Education -Addition of Women, Minorities	-Continuation of public, private, 2-year/4-year, graduate universities -Add-on of Alternative Routes to Bacc. Degree -Strengthening Systems of Higher Education
CLIENTS	Elite Student Body	-18-24 white males dominant -Middle Class & elite	Expanding Broad-Base Enrollments	All ages, all segments, all interests in society
TIME FRAME OF BACC.	4 years in residence	4 years in residence	4 years in residence or equivalent by transfers	-Traditional Campus Program -No traditional residence time frame -Flexible time/flexible space -Assessment Degree
CURRICULUM PATTERN FOR BACC.	-Internal Degree -Complete a set course of studies in sequence by all Classical Liberal Arts	-Internal Degree -General Education Core with major, minor, electives (approx. 40 courses)	-Internal Degree -General Education Core with major, minor, electives -Associate Arts, Upper Division Colleges	-External Degree & Internal Degree -Proprietary Schools -Open Admissions -Standard Bacc. on Traditional -Technical/Vocational Degree Programs
FACTORS AIDING CHANGE	Development by States of their Higher Education	Development of Elective System	-CASE -GED Exam -Growing -Advanced Placement/Advanced Standing -USAF I -Credit for Life Experience -CPEP -Comprehensive College Tests -CLEP -CEU -Library-College -Com. on Non-Traditional Study -Carnegie Reports	Governments or Associations or other non-University Organization given degree granting rights.

Figure 1. Higher Education Eras

Implementing Staff Development, or Why Are We So Tired?

We have explored the meaning of staff development and the ramifications of the concept and its practice. Now, we would like to move beyond the description of what staff development is and look at actual ways of implementing staff development activities and the consequences of doing so. Our initial focus will not be heavy on theory but will list the various ways that staff development is being implemented in public schools and universities. We will also examine recent research on change or innovation adoption and look at its implications for staff development. We will then explore one illustration of the consequences this research has for present practice.

Present Implementation Practices

Several different aspects of staff development implementation need to be kept in mind. First, at what level were the decisions made to initiate staff development activities? The decision could have been made by an individual teacher who wanted to know more about a particular area or to glean insights into some new practice. The decision could also have been made by a local administrator such as a principal, department chairperson, dean, or superintendent.

However, as we all know, the decision to implement staff development activities is often made at the state or national level. As noted later, the source of this initial decision has tremendous implications for the resultant outcomes of the activities.

A second aspect of staff development implementation practice is the source of expertise. Is the source of expertise some form of printed material, a person or persons, an agency, institution or no source at all? ("They can pick this up without any help"). Interestingly, in many instances the initiative may not come at all from the users of the innovation but from the innovation's advocate. Here again, there are important consequences that can be anticipated by examining who or what the source of expertise will be.

A third area that needs to be explored is how the planned activities relate to other aspects of staff work as well as to curriculum and ongoing programs. In all too many instances, staff development activities are not complementary to ongoing programs nor are they seen as relevant to staff concerns and needs. This question also needs to be kept in mind when planning staff development initiatives.

To illustrate the different approaches to staff development and the kinds of initiatives which cause it to occur, Figure 2 is depicted. When reviewing the chart and reading the following paragraphs, please keep in mind that staff development activities are included which are related to supporting the implementation of specific innovations such as new reading programs or new computer systems. Activities are also included which are related solely to personal growth of staff members or the institution as a whole.

WAYS

- Book Clubs
- Professional Meetings
- College Courses
- Sabbatical Leaves
- Traveling Road Shows
- Good Time Workshops
- Inservice Days
- Summer Workshops
- Hire Recognized Experts
- Have Person in Charge of Staff Development
- Individual Consultants
- Consultant Firms
- Develop Teacher-Proof Curriculum
- Develop Curriculum-Proof Teachers
- Create New Institutions (e.g. Instructional Development Agencies in Universities, Regional Service Centers, National R&D Centers Regional Laboratories, Teacher Centers)
- Symbiotic Linkages (e.g., Lab and School System)
- Create Formal Networks (e.g., IGE Leagues, Title III Projects, BOCES, Teacher Corp Network, Multi-State Consortium)
- Create Informal Networks (e.g., Alternative Schools, Standord Graduates)
- Mandates by Any and All (e.g., Principal/Chairperson, Superintendent/Dean Legislature, Congress, Agencies)
- Do Nothing

WHO INITIATES

- Individuals
- School or College
- School System or University
- Professional Association
- State Agency
- State Legislature
- Federal Agency
- Congress
- Students
- Parents
- Community
- Some Combination
- "They"

Figure 2. Kinds of Staff Development Activities and Sources of Initiation for Staff Development.

Many staff development activities are plainly individual initiatives. As part of their professional lives, teachers and administrators at all levels individually initiate various kinds of development activities including professional reading, joining book clubs, attending professional meetings and taking college courses, as well as taking sabbatical leaves.

An interesting new approach available in many areas is the "traveling road show" where private consulting firms and individual consultants hold short workshops in major cities or resort areas. These workshops vary in form and duration, covering any subject of local interest which can attract enough participants to guarantee a profit. The consultant is paid a basic fee plus expenses and according to a successful participant's rating (a short term happiness coefficient) an additional bonus is paid. Thus, the emphasis is on immediate satisfaction with the road show rather than on accountability for long-term consequences.

Institutional initiatives for staff development are also running at a high rate, especially those related to the implementation of specific innovations, such as Individually Guided Education, mainstreaming, new curriculum materials, and more effective teaching in colleges. Institutional initiatives normally seem to take the form of either one or two-hour inservice sessions or full inservice days during the academic year or in the summer. In many instances, consultant firms on short or long-term bases are used to support or implement various activities, especially in larger school systems. Unfortunately, what seems to happen in the actual implementation is that the inservice sessions are not interrelated into a coherent whole. Rather, the staff experiences a random collection of fairly popular consultants who are brought in to run short "good time" workshops and leave. There is no follow-through from summer into the academic year or from session to session.

Another form of staff development at the institutional level is the employment of recognized experts in the area where the thrust is to be made. This is a well documented practice in colleges and universities where Nobel Prize winners or national figures join a faculty to share their knowledge and expertise. Just how far their wisdom spreads is not so well documented.

In school systems, a recent thrust has been to employ a central adminstrator who is in charge of staff development. The Lincoln, Nebraska public schools have recently used this approach quite successfully to develop a centralized impetus for staff development. This person coordinates and facilitates staff development in the various individual school buildings with each building retaining considerable autonomy in selecting activities.

The kinds of activities listed above are used quite extensively across the nation. At the state and federal level, other kinds of staff development initiatives can be identified. These include the development of *teacher-proof curricula* — the big thrust during the 1960's. Then, the assumption seemed to be that bringing experts together and doing programmatic development would result in curriculum materials effective regardless of teachers' skills. However, curriculum developers rapidly found out that without providing training, the teacher-proof materials were not effective. Unfortunately, it seems that some developers still have not discovered this principle and are still attempting to develop teacher-proof curricula.

Recently, some have suggested that perhaps we can develop "*curriculum-proof teachers.*" Apparently, the implication is that existing curriculum materials are detrimental and somehow teachers need to be trained so they will not use the materials as they were developed. We suspect that teachers and professors already have sufficient training to accomplish this end.

Another implementation practice emphasized recently has been the *creation of new institutions* for various kinds of staff development activities. These include the creation of Instructional Development Agencies within colleges and universities. Instructional Development Agencies (Alexander and Yelon, 1972) are normally housed under the vice-president for academic affairs and include specialists in instructional design and the art of teaching. These resource agencies serve the faculty to aid it in *how* to teach, not in what to teach.

The creation of the national *research and development centers and the regional laboratories* (CEDAR Catalog, 1974) was a federal initiative to translate research findings into forms that can be regularly used by practitioners. Collectively, the labs and centers have had an extensive and documentable impact on educational research and developmental practice during their 10 year life span.

Other recent creations have been the *regional service center* as established in Texas or the BOCES (Boards of Cooperative Educational Services) that have been created in New York. These institutions were designed to serve as a resource center to a small number of nearby school systems so that by combining resources and ideas, the schools could collectively have more impact.

Other new institutions are preservice and inservice *teacher centers.* In Texas, we have established teacher centers that primarily emphasize the collaboration of schools, colleges, service centers, and others in developing more effective preservice programs. In other states, such as Florida and Minnesota, teacher centers have been created with more inservice emphasis. For example, the Minneapolis Public School System/University of Minnesota Teacher Center provides instructional services for teachers and administrators, coordinates and supports the many alternative schools within the system, and even rotates principals through the center on short sabbatical leaves.

Special linkages are also being created between institutions. For example, the Spokane Public Schools have linked closely with the Northwest Regional Laboratory so that the lab can implement and evaluate the effects of various staff development programs, and the school system has access to many expert resources. These *symbiotic linkages* seem to offer a strong opportunity to gain new ideas and resources with a minimum of mutual investment. In much the same way, The University of Texas Research & Development Center for Teacher Education has collaborated with colleges and universities interested in developing teacher training programs.

Networks are also being developed at an ever increasing rate. Formal networks such as Teacher Corps, IGE (IGE Leagues) and CBTE (the Multi-State Consortium) are being created by various schools and colleges. Nationally, various key Title III Projects have been linked together with special grants (The National Diffusion Network).

Informal networks have also been effective. For example, various alternative school proponents have created a system through which they maintain contact to share ideas and resources. This network was created and functions solely out of interest and need without the impetus of outside funds. Other informal networks, or "invisible colleges" develop by the sharing of common experiences or training.

The last category of initiatives or practices for implementation, presently used too frequently, is *mandating*. Principals, superintendents, state and federal agencies, or legislatures all mandate certain accomplishments. These include the decree of career education and special education programs, the mandate of competency-based certification and the announcement by superintendents that their schools will all go IGE next September, by principals that there will be parent involvement in all the classrooms or by individual teachers that all children will color their flowers alike. This kind of mandating seems to permeate far too much of present practice and the evidence is overwhelming that mandates do not work. You may get the "box" in the classroom, but that does not get it used.

Consequences of Present Practices

So far we have attempted to list and describe various kinds of implementation practices as summarized in Figure 2. We assume almost everyone is familiar with these approaches. Now let us look at some of the implications and consequences of present practice. If the list itself is not sufficiently dizzying, think about the fact that a given college professor or especially a classroom teacher is more than likely or is supposed to be involved with at least 90% of these practices at the same time. In their daily work, one or more of these practices is directly relative because of the prevalent practice of what Hall (1974) called the *Multiple Adoption Design*, or M.A.D. Strategy.

With the M.A.D. strategy many different innovations are being implemented and supposedly used at the same time by a given teacher or professor. These innovations result from decisions by the teacher, principal, superintendent, chairperson, dean, professional associations, state or federal agencies, and by various legislative bodies. All of these initiatives cause many unrelated staff development activities for the practicing professional.

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Implementing Staff Development as Seen by One Change Researcher

One of the co-authors is engaged in the Procedures for Adopting Educational Innovations (PAEI) Project which is funded by the National Institute of Education. Three innovations being studied are team teaching, individualized instruction in elementary schools, and the adoption of instructional modules by college faculties. We would like to describe briefly some of this research since some of the theory and findings have implications for how staff development is viewed and approached.

The PAEI Project research is centered around a conceptual model of the innovation adoption process named the *Concerns-Based Adoption Model*, CBAM, (Hall, Wallace and Dossett, 1973). The CBAM is a representation of the dynamics of the change process as it is experienced by the individual members of a user system, whether school teachers or college professors. The CBAM also provides a way for diagnosing and interpreting what users are doing with and how they feel about their use of the innovation. By guiding them in their selection of interventions, the model can provide assistance to the staff development person, adoption agent, and others who are responsible for managing the change process.

The basic description of individual innovation users is focused on assessing their "concerns" about the innovation and behaviorally describing their "use" of the innovation. Just as Frances Fuller (1969) has found for teachers in training, when anyone is involved in a change situation, the change is approached with an identifiable set of concerns about the innovation. One's initial concerns are apt to be *self*-oriented. There are many questions about what the consequences of the innovation will be for the user, such as "How will it change other things I am doing?"

These are perfectly legitimate questions and commonly occur in varying intensities depending upon the perceived trauma of the innovation that is being implemented. Once these self-concerns are reduced or resolved, innovation users have increased *tasks* concerns. They have questions about how to use, manage, and work with the innovation. Ultimately, we would like to find that users have more intensive concerns about the *impact* of the innovation on their students. Our research suggests there is a developmental progression from *self* to *task* to *impact* concerns, as individuals become increasingly involved with and experienced in using innovations. If this developmental progression to innovation user concerns is valid, then approaches to staff development, which activities should have priority, and how the particular practices should be advertised need especially careful consideration. Otherwise, the staff development activities may not be seen as relevant.

The other key dimension of the Concerns-Based Adoption Model, the Levels of Use dimension (Hall, Loucks, Rutherford, and Newlove, 1975) presents behavioral descriptions of how a user actually performs in using the innovation. In this dimension of the model, it is hypothesized that innovation users progress from an orientation time to an initial use which is apt to be very mechanical in nature. That is, the innovation user is rather awkward and uncoordinated in his movements. Logistical and management foul-ups commonly occur and expend the user's energy. Subsequently, it is hypothesized that innovation users learn a *routine* or even *refined* way which becomes a part of their regular pattern of work. Some innovation users may move to an *integrated* level by collaborating with others to further increase impact.

In PAEI research, the adoption of various innovations, such as team teaching, instructional modules and individualized instruction, are being studied. Stratified samples of teachers and professors are used to determine if the concerns sequence and the use sequence do exist.

Early returns from this research suggest very strongly that there is an empirical reality to the ideas that automatically "make sense" to practitioners. For example, with the innovation of teaming in elementary schools, teachers do progress from the early pre-use concerns about self to more intense concerns about how to change, manage, and master the innovation. However, even experienced teachers are concerned about reducing the amount of time that it is taking (Hall and Rutherford, 1975). It appears to take a *minimum of three years* of using teaming before teachers settle into a comfortable use of the innovation in spite of very little initial or ongoing training.

A key implication for staff development is that implementing teaming is simply not accomplished by having a single one- or two-day summer workshop and then leaving teachers on their own. Rather, teaming is more likely to take four or five years of work before teachers establish a high level of use. With different staff development activities to support the implementation of teaming, this time might be reduced. It is certain that the type of teaming that is finally stabilized might be more sophisticated and advanced if more effective activities were provided over an extended period of time in contrast to the minimal or non-existent support that is normally found.

A Brief Case Study of the Consequences of Present Practices

Let us look for a minute at an illustration of the consequences of the ideas that have been presented. First, we identified various kinds of implementation practices that are commonly employed. Then we briefly outlined some theory and research findings related to change and implementation of various kinds of education innovations. What does this have to say for staff development in relation to a particular institution or setting? Let's take a look at the kind of staff development/innovative activity that is going on in some schools which we suspect are not all that atypical.

Let us take a look at three schools for which we were able to get a partial picture during the 1974-75 academic year.

Obtaining this information was not an easy accomplishment. One problem was that no single source or person had all of the information. For example, it was found that in several of the schools the principals had only been there a year or two and therefore were not very knowledgeable about the history of innovation in their schools. The school secretary turned out to be a useful source of information as did the counselor; but the teachers weren't that useful due to an average annual turnover of 50%. In all cases, there was no certainty that the information was accurate.

In Figure 3 it can be seen that during the 1974-75 academic year, the teachers in these schools were attempting to master and work with sixteen different innovations. There were large-scale innovations, and most of them were introduced within the last two years. The number of staff development activities that were provided to support any one of these innovations could have consumed the bulk of the inservice days that were scheduled for any given year. These innovations *all* had related inservice training, supervisors, or consultants, and each supposedly was being used by teachers, half of whom, along with the principals, had only been there two years.

We feel the need to go into an extensive discourse about just what this means; however, it would seem that this discourse should not be necessary. It should be readily obvious that it is humanly impossible for any teacher to master and use sixteen different innovations introduced within the last two years. This is especially so, considering minimal input in terms of staff development activities and no coordination or correlation to the various innovations that are being implemented.

The overall adoption strategy is the Multiple Adoption Design (M.A.D.). The consequence is system overload resulting in teachers having an odd daze in their eyes and an exhausted slouch to their movement. If the research with the Concerns-Based Adoption Model means anything at all, it would suggest that with each one of these innovations, each teacher involved has an identifiable level of use. It does not seem at all possible that teachers can keep all of these concerns and levels of use sorted out and to effectively use each innovation in addition to keeping track of instruction for twenty to thirty children across conventional curriculum areas.

The conclusion that we come to seems all too obvious — it is not possible to get any kind of return on the human, financial, and resource investment that is being made when staff development and curriculum change are approached by having a large number of implementations within a short time frame which are unrelated and in nearly all cases unsupported. Although this seems obvious to us, present practice and policy suggest that even more is being attempted with less support rather than a reduction in the number of innovations implemented at one time or the amount of staff development activities being increased and extended over a longer duration.

Where Are We Going?

Within the concept of staff development, many different issues and

PROGRAM INPUT*	PROGRAM	pre 1973-74			1973-74			1974-75		
		A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
Materials and Personnel	CVAE (vocational education program)	x			x			x		
	Diagnostic Intervention Program					x	x		x	x
	ESAA Bilingual/Bicultural									
	(including extensive program evaluation)				x	x	x	x	x	x
	ESAA Tutoring Program				x			x		
	Migrant Program	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
	Plan A		x			x	x	x	x	x
	Project Assist									
	(including extensive program evaluation)				x	x	x	x	x	x
	Title I	x								
	(including extensive program evaluation)		x	x		x	x		x	x
Personnel	Manpower Aide Program									x
	Project Reality	x			x			x		
	Reality Therapy							x		
	Teacher Corps								x	x
	U.T. Social Workers	x			x		x	x		x
	(after school)		x			x			x	
	U.T. Student Observers		x			x			x	
	U.T. Student Teachers		x			x			x	
	U.T. Tutoring from M.H.M.R.									x
	(after school)					x			x	
	U.T. Tutoring Service	x			x			x		
Materials	Fountain Valley Math				x			x	x	x
	Fountain Valley Reading			x			x	x		x
	Metz Publishing Company								x	
	SEDL Kindergarten Program		x	x		x	x		x	x
	SEDL Social Studies Pilot Project									x
Inservice Only	Domingo Dominguez SEDL Model								x	x
	Magic Circle						x			x
	Reality Therapy								x	
	TOTALS	6	7	4	9	11	10	12	16	16

Figure 3. Major Innovations Being Implemented in Three Schools.

(Adapted from: Hester, Joy E., Ann M. Lee. *ESAA II Pilot Project Final Report*. Austin, Texas: Austin Independent School District. 1975. page 92 aspects need to be taken into consideration. However, staff development cannot be looked at without placing it in the context of the larger system. While the idea of staff development is not new, effective programs would be. Keeping these ideas in mind, we offer the following list of factors or components which are presented as observations from the past and questions for the future. We invite reflection on them in implementing future staff development activities.

Staff Development Yesterday and Tomorrow?

Format:	Information giving via the lecture and readings. Shouldn't it be multimedia and interactive?
Facilities:	Campus-based in the college classroom or lecture hall. Shouldn't it be field-based and not always classroom-based?
Timing:	At the beginning or end of the school year and after hours. Shouldn't it be during the professional day and year?
Locale:	College-based. Shouldn't it be field-based in school settings?
Length:	One-half day to three-week workshops with mini-courses. Shouldn't it be extended over the implementation period with on-going consultation?
Who Is Involved:	The classroom teacher as the main recipient. Shouldn't it be all professional personnel, including teachers, principals, superintendents, supervisors, paraprofessionals, and university administrators and faculty?
Resources:	Minimal investment, mainly for teacher salaries. Shouldn't it be investment of resources for materials for planning, for salaries, for continuing consultation and for follow-through?
Relevance:	Having others tell the teachers what they need with outside "experts" having proved the relevance. Shouldn't it be based on diagnosis and determination of the needs as felt and expressed by the teachers involved?
Capacity:	Based on the assumption that teachers can always do more without taking anything away. Shouldn't there be recognition of the personal and

	institutional limits of how much innovation can be implemented in any period of time and recognition of the potential for "overloading the system"?
Planning:	Centered in the central office. Shouldn't it be cooperatively planned by all parties involved with opportunity for feedback?
Feedback:	Serendipitous at best. Shouldn't it begin with the planning, with adaptions made based on the period of implementation? tion?
Effect:	Dull, boring, irrelevant, "something to check off". Shouldn't it be "right on", meaningful, personal, exciting, and *useful*?

It becomes obvious that staff development is quite complicated and involves much more attention and planning than in the past. After all, we are talking about people and not objects.

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CHAPTER 3

I support the teacher press for parity of power in teacher education, both preservice and inservice.

Dr. William Drummond informally presents some of the critical governance issues facing the developers of inservice programs. The issue of parity in the education decision-making process is a volatile issue for all concerned. The role of teachers in the designing, development, and implementation of inservice programs touches the heart of the issue. Before inservice programs are developed and implemented careful consideration should be given to the issue of governance.

A LETTER TO HARRY ON GOVERNANCE[1]

by William H. Drummond

University of Florida

Dear Harry:

I know it's been a long time since I've written — but you haven't been the world's best correspondent either. When I received your recent letter about the meeting you attended at the Student Center of Lighthouse University regarding the proposed establishment of a new staff development and teacher education center, it blew my mind. I'm not surprised that you got into an argument with Dr. Treadmill about what needed to be done to improve inservice teacher education. Your questions and comments about "governance" in teacher education, however, have caused me to do some reading and thinking and have goaded me into writing this letter. So, if I write more than you want to read, blame it on our friendship and be tolerant.

Before I complete this letter, I want to respond to the following questions: (1) Why do people establish governments or governing arrangements?, (2) Why are teachers and teacher organizational leaders pressing for clarity of meaning and parity of power in the governance of teacher education?, (3) How does governance in teacher education relate to the development of effective interagency collaboration?, (4) What are the governance issues today?, and (5) Must governance be faced before program development or teacher center development can proceed?

What are governments for, anyway?

The Bicentennial Celebration, Harry, has caused me to look again at the rationale for governments and revolution used by Jefferson in the Declaration of Independence. According to young Thomas, men are endowed with certain inalienable rights of life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness; and governments are formed to protect these ends and derive their just power from the consent of those governed. Moreover, when governments are formed which are not founded on these principles, it is the right, even the duty, of the people to overthrow them. (If you're really interested, you might want to read again John Locke's *Second Essay on Government*, from which Jefferson borrowed heavily.) These same basic ideas are also reiterated in the Preamble to the United States Constitution: that the purposes of government are to establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare and secure the blessings of liberty. (These ideas also can be found in Article I of the United Nations Charter.)

No matter how you cut it, Harry, governments are formed to govern: that is, to exercise authority, direction and control over the actions of the members of a community, society, or state. Paraphrasing Locke, government is a social contract between those who govern and those being governed. In effect, some individual liberty and authority is given up by those being governed in exchange for the maintenance of safety, public order, and the promotion of the common welfare

There are many people who say "the less government the better", and I suppose in theory that's correct. Certainly if there were little change in the lives of people from year to year and if they had clear roles to play and life were more simple and if everyone trusted everyone else, there might be less need for government. But since none of these conditions exist, we find ourselves needing government for our own safety and protection.

Why are Teachers Pressing for Parity in Governance of Teacher Education?

I guess when it really gets down to cases, Harry, the reason teachers insist on parity in governance is they have learned that they cannot afford to trust administrators, professors, state department of education supervisors, private consultants, or lay citizens without clear legal and procedural safeguards. Too often, teachers have been victimized by apparently well-meaning people championing various causes only to realize that they have been given more responsibility with less time and fewer resources to accomplish additional tasks. And, being the kind of people they are and wanting to do their very best for their students, they wind up feeling more guilty and more anxious about their world and their work. Teachers have learned that the only way they can stop the erosion of their role and status is by collective political action: becoming involved in local, state, and national politics; engaging in collective bargaining, withholding services unless some parity of power is achieved in activities in which they (the teachers) have a legitimate stake.

I have just been reading *Rethinking In-Service Education*, edited by Roy Edelfelt and Margo Johnson and published by the NEA. In their chapter "Agency Roles and Responsibilities in In-Service Education", Patricia Orrange and Mike Van Ryn make the following statements:

> ...."Although educators at all levels of the education enterprise give considerable lip service to the importance of in-service education in helping school personnel cope with changes in curriculum, methodology, materials, organizational structure, and student needs, there is little evidence that adequate financial resources are available to enable school staffs to organize in-service programs...."
>
> "The widespread recognition of need, then, frequently falters under the second-phase questions like finance — and also control, construct, initiation, design, delivery, and time restraints. Questions of roles and responsibilities create major stumbling blocks to fast-paced progress in developing new programs. Among these questions are:

- Who should maintain primary control of in-service education?
- What are the objectives of the training?
- What agencies should be involved in the determination of objectives?
- Where should the training take place and when?
- Who should initiate the training?
- What form should the training take?
- Who is responsible for conducting the training?
- How much time is required for conceptualization and implementation?
- Just what are the appropriate roles and responsibilities of higher education institutions, state education departments, teacher organizations, and school districts in the professional development of teachers?"

Now don't you think, Harry, that classroom teachers individually and collectively should have primary decision-making power in answering these questions? I do. I support the teacher press for parity of power in teacher education, both preservice and inservice.

How Does Governance Relate to Collaboration?

I've been reading some materials on group theory written by William C. Schutz several years ago and have adapted them to explain where governance fits in relation to the development of group esprit. Oversimplifying Schutz's theory, he says that groups go through a series of phases or stages as they become more effective and stronger over time and that they reverse the same stages as they become less effective and weaker, eventually disbanding. Here are the stages:

1. Purpose or reason. Why get involved?
2. Inclusion or membership. Who is in and who is out?
   Pay off. What's in it for me? What are the others getting?
4. Control or *governance*. Who is in charge? Will my interests be protected?
5. Task accomplishment. What have we done? What are the results?
6. Appreciation. When we did what we did, what were the consequences? Why?
7. Affection. Isn't our work together enjoyable and worthwhile?

Harry, if this theoretical sequence is descriptive of the way groups develop and become effective, it does have something for you to add to your argument regarding the establishment of some form of governance for teacher education centers. It would seem that you guys (Dr. Treadmill included) should become clear on (1) what your motives and purposes are, (2) who will be included, and (3) what the immediate and the possible long-range pay-offs will be for becoming involved. Then, before anyone expects people (especially teachers) to jump on some bandwagon, you had better establish some governmental structure because, whether you like or not, you are establishing, with a new set of norms, roles, expectations, a new institution which needs to be governed.

There is another important message in this theoretical construct: effective collaboration in teacher education has to go far beyond formal agreements and governmental structures. Tasks have to be accomplished certainly, but beyond that individuals and organizations have to experience success and appreciate the rewards of interagency work. Communication between and among the people who do the work has to become informal, easy, and caring — transcending institutional or organizational boundaries. This means, of course, that those involved have to work at both group task and group maintenance activities. Effective organizations don't just happen. People have to care about them and to devote time and energy to sustain them.

Harry, you wondered if every organization involved in a teacher education center had to be in on every activity or on every committee. Of course they don't. Every organization should have parity of representation on the policy board or decision-making council. But the neat thing about a collaborative endeavor is that each of these agencies is different — they have different talents and resources. Given appropriate policy development and responsible decision-making and appeal or grievance procedures, some activities of a teacher education center may well be delegated to a single agency or a combination of agencies. Who cares, as long as tasks are well done and as long as everything is above board and "in the sunshine."

What are the governance issues today?

If you accept the theory outlined above, you already know some of the issues. But in any case, Harry, let me list them for you. If they turn you on, you might want to use them as you discuss governance the next time you meet with those guys at Lighthouse U.:

1. What is to be the mission or purpose of the collaborative effort? (Although most everyone, Harry, wants to hurry past this question, our experience leads me to advise people to take the time needed to come to agreement on mission.)
2. Who will be included? What organizations and agencies? Will membership be limited? What will be the prerequisites for membership?
3. What will be the short term rewards for membership? Are the short term rewards consistent with the organizational objectives of each of the members?

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4. In the longer run, how will personnel who work in the Center be rewarded within their constituent organizations and institutions?
5. What will the governing body be like? Will it assure equitable representation? Will the governing body have decision-making power? How will the use of power be monitored? How will the governing board manage, monitor and evaluate the work of the center?
   (An interesting facet of teacher education center (TEC) development in Florida is that TEC councils usually do not have as members the superintendent of schools, the dean of the college of education or the president of the local teacher organization — the very people who have decision-making power for their organizations. As you can imagine, this has created some interesting dynamics.)
6. How will members of the governing board view their roles? Will they be responsive and responsible to their constituents? How will members communicate with their constituents?
7. How and to whom can aggrieved persons or organizations appear? Are there by-laws guaranteeing the right of appeal?
9. What standing committees are needed?
10. Will policy relate equally to preservice and inservice education? How will preservice and inservice teacher education be coordinated? How will the work of the center be related to credits, credentials, courses, inservice points, or other forms of recognition?
11. How will the work of the center be related to teacher supply and demand, to changes in staffing patterns and assignments, to administrative supervision and/or to personnel management?
12. How will the center assure constituent members, the teaching profession, and the public that its work is of high quality?

I think it is important to remember that organizations and institutions which are in close proximity to one another and which share common interests (teacher education the subject of interest here) develop a history and a reputation. This history, for good or ill, influences the nature and effectiveness of work to be done in the present. In launching new collaborative endeavors, after agreements have been reached regarding membership, pay-off and governance, the new organizational coalition should work on those things they know they can do well. When people work from their strengths, they feel more comfortable; they know more about what they are doing; they have the most to offer.

I am convinced that interagency collaboration will not occur unless both the leadership and the rank and file of constituent organizations see some fairly immediate pay-offs or rewards. New organizational arrangements require heavy commitments from the leaders of the organizations involved and these heavy commitments cannot be sustained unless members provide psychological and moral support to the leaders. As you can see, Harry, it ain't easy, and it requires a lot of time to learn to communicate across bureaucratic organizations.

Must Governance Be Faced Before Program Planning or Teacher Center Development Can Proceed?

In listening to discussions about competency-based or performance-based teacher education, I hear good folks bemoan the fact that when attention is given to governance as a first or early step in bringing about change, that program development occurs much more slowly. My experience, Harry, is that the governance issue has to be faced early. If you don't face it, you are either playing games or fighting a holding action. I'm convinced that the time has passed, especially in those states with collective bargaining, when change in teacher education can be considered without dealing with governance. And, Harry, I think that's really OK. Democracy isn't beautiful or speedy, but it's the best thing going for us.

This turned into a longer letter than I planned. I still feel good about what is happening in teacher education in America, although I wish we knew more about it — that we had a better research base. Without research almost all decisions turn out to be political. So we have to continue being politically active on the one hand while trying to learn about teaching and the career development or ourselves on the other.

It's always good to hear from you. I've enclosed a brief bibliography.

Warm personal regards.

Sincerely,

Stanley

FOOTNOTE

[1] A note of explanation:

For several years I have written to an imaginary "Harry", a teacher colleague employed in another city; in writing to him I've used the pen name "Stanley." Letters to Harry have given me freedom to be more informal and off-hand in what I've had to say.

In the present case, Stanley has received a letter from Harry in which he has described an argument he had regarding the governance of a proposed staff development or teacher education center. The basic question being raised is whether or not some kind of formal governance structure is necessary to get a center started. — *WHD*

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SECTION II
Preparation Programs

Chapter 1 — Preparation Programs for Professional Educators

by Sarah Cockrell White, Director, Professional Development Center,
College of Education, University of Houston and
W. Robert Houston, Associate Dean, College of Education
University of Houston

Chapter 2 — Teacher Centers

by James Collins, Dean, College of Education
Syracuse University

CHAPTER 1

The half-life of most educational movements is amazingly short. They are born of a need, pressed by early adopters, and become well known about the time their shortcomings are made evident. However, each movement tends to leave a residual effect on practice which integrates its characteristics into new movements.

In the first section of this book we saw the development of the inservice issue from definition through historical foundations to the concerns for governance. Dr. Sarah White and Dr. W. Robert Houston explore the theoretical issue for program development as it relates to Competency Based Education, preservice/inservice education, and Teacher Corps. Kennamer and Hall (Section 1) quote Harris and Bessent in stating "Preservice preparation of professional staff members is rarely ideal and may be primarily an introduction to professional preparation rather than professional preparation as such." Drs. White and Houston develop a viable basis for the construction of an effective professional preparation program.

PREPARATION PROGRAMS FOR PROFESSIONAL EDUCATORS

By Sarah Cockrell White
W. Robert Houston

The half-life of most educational movements is amazingly short. They are born of a need, pressed by early adopters, and become well known about the time their shortcomings are made evident. However, each movement tends to leave a residual effect on practice which integrates its characteristics into newer movements. Educational practice is improved when this evolutionary process is facilitated by open and critical discussion. Through such discussions the fuzzy outer layers of concepts and proposed practices are worn away leaving behind a viable core remains which carried the essence of the movement into the next generation of educational thought.

Thus, the hue and cry raised in response to the competency based education movement has made a number of positive contributions. First, it has given professional preparation the most widespread attention it has enjoyed since its establishment as an institution in American education.

Secondly, it has surfaced and re-opened discussion of issues related to professional preparation, such as control, initial and ongoing certification requirements, accountability of professional educators and institutions, degree and source of support and funding, among others.

Perhaps the most potentially significant contribution of the CBE discussion lies in its focus on the preparation program, and the attempts to order, define and clarify it through systematic development. The purpose of this paper is to stimulate discussion of the relevant issues related to program development by suggesting the parameters within which the discussion should occur. Specifically, assumptions will be stated; types of programs and development processes will be defined; a structure for comparing programs and development processes will be suggested; and implications of definitions, assumptions and structural components will be analyzed to identify relevant issues.

Professional Preparation Programs

The term "professional preparation program" almost defies definition. If there is any common characteristic among programs, it is their diversity. As a beginning, however, the following assumptions can focus the discussion.

> Practice of the profession of education requires some type of preparation. The basis for this preparation is grounded (in most instances) in law and can be traced historically in American education.
>
> Professional preparation is an endeavor separate and apart from

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> certification, licensing, and control procedures. Though it is of necessity related to, involved in, and influenced by these factors, professional preparation is characterized more by a training or educational function than by a "gate-keeping" function.

These assumptions eliminate from the discussion such issues as whether or not there should be a preparation program; who controls the program (either through legislation, policy or funding), and who issues licenses and certificates. Also eliminated are the issues of accountability and professional standards, not because these are unimportant issues, but because they are implicit, not explicit to a discussion of program development.

Also from these assumptions, a definition of the professional program begins to emerge. For the purpose of discussion, the preparation program is defined as a set of requirements, alternatives, and procedures provided to initiate and promote acquisition of the knowledge, skills and characteristics necessary to perform the professional activities and practices carried out in an educational institution. This definition is comprehensive enough to include all education experiences provided or required for both inservice or preservice educators, regardless of the setting (institution of higher education, local school district, Service Center), or the administrative unit directing it (College of Arts and Sciences, College of Education, Department of Professional Studies, or public school Staff Development Department).

An analysis of the requirements, alternatives, and procedures would provide a great deal of information about any specific program. Because these differ widely, a comparison of programs becomes more meaningful if it is structured around characteristics programs have in common. Every preparation program has some type of focus, structure and quality control. Figure 1 illustrates the relationship between programs and their common characteristics.

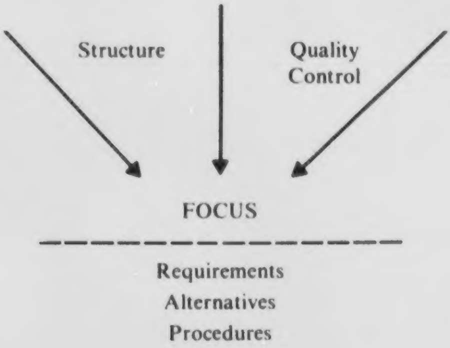

Figure 1. Program Characteristics

The structure of the program may be defined partially by its parts or pieces. In its early history, professional preparation consisted primarily of an apprenticeship whereby "the Art, Trade or Mystery" of teaching was learned by emulating a proven master (Best and Sidwell, 1967). A short time later, teacher preparation became a legitimate pursuit of the academies, and the pedagogical apprenticeship was combined with academic preparation. Normal schools extended the efforts of the academies by providing opportunities to gain experience through supervised practice (Meyer, 1967). The evolution of preparation programs in American education has centered around these three traditions — pedagogic apprenticeship, academic preparation and experience through practice. All appear as basic structural components in almost every preparation program known today.

Within each of these components or administrative units, less comprehensive subcomponents are visible. These "organizational units" are primarily established for management purposes, and can take the form of Program Areas (Elementary, Secondary) or Content Areas (Social Studies or Science, for example). Each of these areas is made up of more parts which are considered instructional units. Traditionally, we have thought of these units as courses. In many newer programs, however, the basic instructional unit is the module — a set of learning experiences organized around a single objective or set of related objectives (Houston et al., 1971). A preparation program may make use of any or all of these structural elements, depending upon the level of specificity at which they are defined.

Units may be organized in different ways for administrative, management or instructional purposes. For example, the Academic component may constitute the initial program offering, followed by the Pedagogic component which, in turn, is followed by the Experience or Practice component. Or they may be presented simultaneously and extend throughout the program. In many programs, the pedagogic apprenticeship occurs in conjunction with the Experience component. Organizational and Instructional units may also be combined in a number of ways. To discuss or compare preparation programs, it is necessary to ferret out this organization and the types of units that comprise its structure.

Quality control is the process through which programs are modified through evaluation either formally or informally. Informal quality control ranges from what has been referred to as the "Cardiac" method, in which program changes and modifications are made on the basis of a "feeling deep down in the heart" to a "hear-say" method where comments overheard by one or two students, principals, academic faculty or administrators result in program modifications.

Formal methods of quality control consist of outside evaluation made by state approving agencies or such organizations as the National Council on Accreditation for Teacher Education. Outside evaluators often employ standards of this type: the number of years faculty members have taught in public schools, the content of the professional library, the contributions of faculty members to the profession through research, writing, and conference presentations.

Other formal control methods utilize organized procedures for obtaining student feedback about the teaching performance of individual instructors. Such information rarely results in any serious modification of programs. Some programs establish a rigorous evaluation process in which data about student performance, program components and experiences, faculty performance, and program relevance to job requirements are collected and systematically analyzed to identify areas where changes are needed (Shalock, 1974).

Every program has some implicit or explicit assumptions about the type of preparation educators need. These assumptions give focus to the requirements, alternatives, and procedures of the program, and influence structure and quality control. According to Joyce, four types of programs can be identified in terms of the assumptions and practices on which each focuses. These four types of programs have been labeled Classical, Academic, Phenomenological, and Competency Based (Joyce, 1974).

Classical: In the Classical orientation, teaching is viewed as a process of problem solving. Teacher education provides a broad range of general knowledge from which to solve problems. This general knowledge base is provided through a series of courses and exposure to classroom situations through observation. The preparation program is capped by practice teaching where would-be teachers practice solving classroom problems under the watchful eye of an experienced teacher.

The focus of the Classical program is the Master Teacher (instructor, supervisor) who is expected to draw from personal experience in the classroom to guide students in solving problems. Methods courses often take the "anecdotal" approach where problems are posed — from the instructor's experience — and solutions suggested by the student are evaluated on the same basis. The Classical orientation combines the traditional components, but emphasizes the Pedagogical component. Academic preparation is not de-emphasized, but is viewed more as a necessary evil than as an integral part of the program. The Practice component still focuses on the Master Teacher notion, as students practice solving classroom problems under the Supervisor's guidance.

Quality control is usually a combination of formal and informal evaluation and modification, with the informal procedure taking precedence. The experience of the individual Master Teacher is considered the best source of information. The Master is the primary evaluator of students — heavy emphasis is given to their recommendations and reports of students' progress and ability. Individual instructors determine the quality of performance of students at every level (as any student who has contested a grade given by an instructor can testify). The instructor's feeling about how well his particular area of assignment was received by students, the perceived amount of difficulty experienced by students and instructor, and the perceived effectiveness of required experiences is the basis upon which program requirements and procedures are modified. Again, the Master Teacher idea is carried through, where the modifications made are derived from his experience.

Academic: The Academically-oriented program assumes knowledge of subject matter to be the most important characteristic of teaching. The body of knowledge, structure of the discipline and its mode of inquiry are the real content of teacher preparation, and any attention to methodology and practice are usually "lip-service" to certification requirements. In addition to subject matter knowledge, the professional educator is expected to exemplify the "liberally educated person" who not only values knowledge but is able to instill that value in his students by illustrating how such an education enriches human life. The central core of the program is the academic specialization area surrounded by other courses deemed necessary for enrichment purposes.

The focus of this orientation is, of course, knowledge of the discipline. The program takes its structure of the discipline and courses are provided around the categories of knowledge, inquiry and application of key concepts. Academic preparation may constitute the entire preparation program. This basic structure is modified in some programs to accommodate a brief Pedagogical component near the end of the program, or added on as a fifth-year experience after Academic preparation is complete.

Quality control is also discipline centered. The program is characterized by the cumulative expertise of its faculty — the extent of their scholarship, the degree to which they contribute to the discipline, and often by their reputation which allows them to seek and receive more funds for research.

Phenomenological: A third type of program is oriented toward the Phenomenological view. In this approach, teaching is defined as a "helping" relationship established between two persons (teacher and pupil) both of whom are in a process of "becoming." The content of the program is "needs" based drawing from individual students' perceptions of the most valuable experiences. The preparation program is characterized by its balance of "a maximum diet of success and a minimum experience of failure" (Combs, Kinzer, 1974). In this type of program, behavior is considered symptomatic and what the teacher is becoming is more important than what the teacher is, knows, or does. Requirements, alternatives and procedures are often a matter of individual concern. The prospective professional sets the direction with the teacher-educator acting as a facilitator in the exploration of personal concerns.

This type of program focuses on the individual student. The student is viewed in a "holistic" manner in which academic, social and psychological growth cannot be separated. The program is structured around experiences designed to foster growth needs. Diagnosis, problem encounters, and individual and group counseling are important components of the program. Quality control is also a function of the perceptions of individuals. The program is successful to the extent that individual needs are satisfied. Both student and instructor enter into the evaluative process which is idiosyncratic, as opposed to general, in nature.

Competency Based: The Competency Based orientation defines teaching in terms of professional roles and the tasks or competencies performed in role execution. This orientation is concerned with the social nature of teaching, and the variety of ways roles are defined and executed in different educational contexts. Objectives are derived from a task analysis of the roles. These objectives serve as the focus for the program, and as the basic structural units around which learning experiences are organized. While the traditional components of programs are still visible, they usually do not operate as separate structural units. Academic preparation, pedagogy, and practice are organized around the objective or task which focuses the training experience.

Quality control in the CBE orientation is based on objectives. Each student is evaluated in terms of specific instructional objectives, and program components are modified in relation to the program's ability to meet its overall goals (Joyce, 1974). Quality control is a formal part of the program, with built-in procedures to gather information and make needed modification. Data are gathered from a variety of sources — students, instructors, supervisors, school staff — and used as a basis for changes in the entire program.

Program Development

Preparation programs are irrevocably tied to the types of development processes they employ. Quality control is the connecting link between a preparation program and the program development process. Though it may appear more as a "missing link" in many programs, it is present to some degree, and it is through this program facet that the need for program development is often identified.

In this discussion, program development is assumed to be a conscious decisioning process carried out for some purpose or in response to some identified need. Because programs are developed by people, it is also assumed that all the different ways humans make decisions will be visible in the development process.

One of the major purposes of program development is communication. The program development process results in a graphic description of the program which is used to facilitate participation in the program; to justify the existence of the program; or to seek approval for funding or accreditation.

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Program development is grounded in accountability. The focus of the accountability — student, program staff, the profession, hiring agencies, society in general or the academic world — is related to control of the profession and its preparation programs. Accountability is an issue that cannot be resolved through program development.

There are numerous development "models," and many discussions of the ways and means of program development. Few of these, however, address the basic question of what program development really does. Program development is defined as a process through which the program's focus, structure and quality control mechanisms are identified, and the requirements, alternatives and procedures are put into communicable form.

This process can be carried out through one of two types of program decisioning — transformational or systemic design. The transformational process is basically one of modification of existing programs. The existing program may be modified to fit within its present institutional setting, or a program may be transferred from one institutional setting (or one program area) to another, and adapted to fit the new environment. The Systemic Design process is characterized by intent and systematic planning. Decisions are made in relation to the intent and result in specified procedures for implementing decisions (Cooper, Weber, 1973).

The two types of processes can be further differentiated on the basis of the following characteristics:

1. The needs and goals for development.
2. The types of decisioning process emphasized.
3. The data sources used for making decisions.
4. The organization of decision-making procedures.
5. The manner in which development decisions are implemented.
6. The degree of congruence between development and operation of the program.
7. The extent and duration of the development process.

The impetus for program development arises from two primary needs: (1) the need to initiate a new, previously non-existent program; and (2) the need to make changes in an existing and ongoing program. Both of these needs can have one or more goals for program development which give direction to the development process and guide the decisions made. Some of these goals are:

Maintenance

To fit the program to pressures arising from outside the program such as certification requirements or approval procedures, job markets, hiring practices, changes in funding and resource allocation, and legislation.

To fit the program to pressures arising from inside the program such as different entry levels of students, student demands for more relevance, changes in faculty expertise and interest.

Impact

To render the program as effective and efficient as possible in order to make the best use of resources and to increase its potential for autonomy, and for demanding and receiving more resources.

To affect changes in its surrounding environments (such as changing institutional organization and educational practices).

Any development process is characterized by the goal it emphasizes. The Transformational process emphasizes maintenance goals and decisions about the program are made in response to changes in the environment. The Systemic Design process emphasizes Impact goals — the desire to increase effectiveness, efficiency and to influence change in its environment.

Two types of decisions further illustrate differences between the two processes. The decisions made in the Transformational process are reactive decisions. Since the major goal is maintenance to accommodate changes in the internal or external environment, there must be evidence that changes are needed — and information about what changes are needed — before development decisions can be made.

In the Systemic Design process, decisioning is proactive. Focusing on its intent — to affect changes in the internal or external environment — the Systemic process first identifies desirable changes, then formulates plans to concentrate resources on change. These "front-end" decisions lay the groundwork for all other development decisions (De Vault, 1973).

The possible data sources that can be used as bases for program decisions are extensive. Capabilities and needs of students and staff; content of programs; funding or approval requirements; societal and economic needs, goals, trends, educational and social research; employment trends and needs; resource allocations; legal requirements and conditions; conditions and trends of the profession; and time constraints to name only a few. A data source may be any person, factor, condition, or element contained within the program, working within the program, or existing outside the program and having some direct relationship to it.

The Transformational process will utilize data from whatever source or environmental factor that calls attention to itself. Students become the data source when they express dissatisfaction with some portion of the program and make enough noise to be heard. Society becomes the data source when it expresses some unmet need as in the case of racial desegregation. Funding and resource allocation will supply the most data when more or less money is available. The Transformational process may take in data from several sources, but in this process, there is no guarantee that more than one data source will be used.

In a Systemic Design process, as many data sources as possible will be used. A major part of the systemic process is setting up systematic procedures to identify data sources, to collect and analyze data, and to use these data in decisioning (Shalock, 1974).

If program development is a decisioning process, who makes the decisions? And, how can the question of decision makers be addressed without discussing control? One possible way is to define decision makers in terms of ownership — ownership meaning vested interest in the program (Hernandez, 1974).

Decision makers, then, can be drawn from a wide range of possible groups — students, faculty, staff, middle and high level management, public schools, state agencies, and so forth. Philosophically and theoretically, the question of who should be (or has a right to be) involved in program development decisions can and should be discussed at length. The major concern in development, however, is not so much who makes decisions as the degree of attention given to organizing the decision-making structure, and the extent to which all owners are satisfied with the decisions.

The Transformational process is characterized by its limited inclusion in and organization for owner decisions. The Systemic Design process is owner-inclusive and highly organized to allow owner involvement in decisions. The Transformational process often utilizes a vertical decisioning structure. Decisions are made "at the top" and funneled down through the program structure.

A horizontal decisioning structure is more descriptive of the Systemic Design process. Decision areas are defined in terms of functional units and not power units. Decision makers are identified on the basis of skill, interest and involvement in the functional area; not on the basis of position in the administrative hierarchy (DeVault, 1973).

Closely aligned with the organizational structure for decisions is the method through which decisions made in development become implemented in programs. There are basically three ways that this can be done — through persuasion, consensus or by divine decree.

Decisioning in the Transformational process operates along a continuum from persuasion to divine decree. The Transformational process is most compatible with the divine decree mode. Because the development process aims toward maintenance goals, it must be in a position to respond rapidly to environmental changes. Key people in the power structure assume responsibility for making decisions and for seeing that they are carried out. These people hold the means for reward and punishment, and use these means for implementing decisions.

When program development focuses on internal goals, however, the persuasive model must often be employed. The power figure in this mode is the charismatic leader who influences through personality and interpersonal facility. Both decree and persuasion are extremely important in transformational development as there is usually a continuing "swing" in the goal focus from internal to external pressures for change.

The Systemic Design process is effective to the extent that it can employ a consensus implementation mode. Consensus of decisions is most important within functional areas. Time spent in reaching consensus during decisioning is more than made up in program operation when owners share commitment to the program's focus, structure and quality control procedures (Coffin, Hamreus, 1973). In Systemic Design, information and professional trust are also important. Since decisions related to specific functional areas are made by people who have expertise, interest and involvement in that area, it must be assumed that their decisions reflect their expertise and involvement. While these people are trusted to make good decisions, they must be furnished with adequate information from other functional areas and must, in turn, pass on information, so that all areas can remain consistent and focused on the same intent (Felder, Shores, 1974).

Two other important characteristics distinguish between the two types of development processes. The first of these is the degree of congruence between development and program operation; the second is the extent and duration of development. In the Transformational process, development is minimized. Only the most obvious changes are made to accommodate pressures in the environment. Development ceases when those changes are made, and future changes occur only as a need is again made apparent. Changes are likely to be on paper only. Many practices written into the program are "watered down" at the operational level so that they never actually become a part of the program. This has happened in many so-called competency based programs where list after list of competencies have been committed to paper, but which are never used as a basis upon which to evaluate students.

In Systemic Design, program operation is one step in the total design process. During program operation, data are gathered to determine program effectiveness, efficiency and impact (in relation to intent) and this information is fed back into the development process. Needed changes are made to increase impact potential for the next operational cycle. Thus, development is continuous in the Systemic Design process, instead of stop-and-go as in the Transformational process (Houston, 1973).

The two development processes rarely exist in ideal form. Most program developers combine the characteristics of each with more emphasis given to one than to the other. The basic differences are summarized in Figure 2 and have been presented to illustrate the extreme forms which program development can take.

Transformational		Systemic Design
Maintenance	Development Goals	Impact
Reactive	Types of Decisions	Proactive
Crisis Point	Data Sources	Systematically Identified
Limited; Hierarchial	Organization for Decisions	Inclusive; Horizontal
Decree; Persuasion	Implementation of Decisions	Concensus
Accidental	Development-Operation Congruence	By Design
Partial; Intermittent	Extent and Duration of Development	Total; Ongoing

Figure 2. Characteristics of Development Processes

The process used, or the combination of characteristics used, has implication for the types of programs that result. In Figure 3, the types of programs discussed earlier are arrayed along a continuum to illustrate (to some extent) relationships between the type of development process and the type of program with which it appears most compatible.

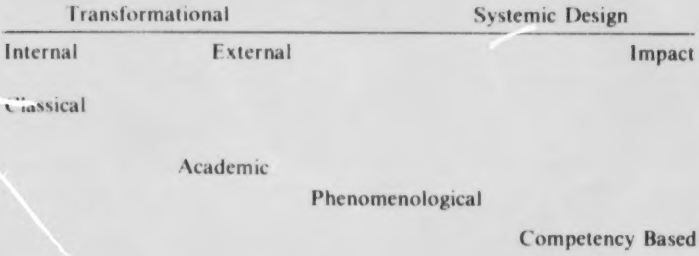

Figure 3. Development Processes and Types of Programs

The first issue faced by program developers is which type of process, or which combination of characteristics from the two processes, will be used in development. Subsequent decisions will be guided to a great extent by this initial one, but neither process dictates the content of decisions or the outcomes of decision-making. Program developers must still determine the focus, structure, and quality control which will define any given program. Such questions as:

1. How is the professional educator defined for this program?
2. What is the basic content of the program? From where is that content drawn?
3. What are the basic structural units for the program? Will these be changed or will they remain basically unchanged and the new program inserted in existing units?
4. How will structural units be organized? What is the sequence of preparation experiences? In what order will students progress through the experience? Will they have alternatives? If so, how are they determined, communicated, or restricted? Upon what theoretical basis will sequence decisions be made?

5. What emphasis will be given to preparation experiences? To what extent will preparation experiences take place in the academic classroom? the college laboratory? the public school classroom? Will the program be field-oriented, field-based, or university campus-based?
6. On what goals will program development focus?
7. What data sources will be used for decisions? What methods will be used to collect data? To what extent are these methods reliable, valid?
8. Who will be involved in decision making? Who will determine program policy, goals, instructional experiences? In what way will the profession be involved? the University? the public school? the community? the student?
9. How will decision-making structures be identified and organized? What is the function of the Teacher Center? What role does the Teacher Center have in the decisioning process and in program operation?

These and numerous other issues specifically related to program development will emerge as either program development process is implemented. These issues will stimulate and focus discussion of preparation programs and program development. Resolution of these issues becomes increasingly important as the state, the profession, universities and school districts consider their evolving roles and relationships in professional preparation.

Teacher Corps, with its far reaching mandates, can become an extremely viable vehicle; as such it provides unexplored opportunities, unknown challenges, and unthought-of delights. Its role in preparation programs and program development processes has emerged from a sensitive realization of needs and an overwhelming amount of excitement and commitment. The possibilities for its role are unlimited in the provision of educational benefits for all children. One of the most important tasks of Teacher Corps projects is careful, deliberate attention to basic issues as their roles become defined. The viability of the Teacher Corps role will be measured by the extent to which we use these issues as vehicles for critical dialogue; explore alternatives for decisions; and resolve issues through mutual interest in and dedication to quality professional preparation programs. This is our challenge and our opportunity.

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CHAPTER 2

> "...My interest is in the future because I am going to spend the rest of my life there..." — Charles Kettering.

An analogy can be drawn between the functions of the Teachers Corps and the role of Teacher Centers in professional Teacher Education programs. Because both are so heavily involved in preservice and inservice developmental programs, there are striking commonalities between the two agencies.

Teacher Centers can be seen historically as deriving from the concepts of the Teacher Corps training complex, which has been described as "an organization designed to provide preservice and inservice education for potential and practicing educational personnel.

The reader can allude to Teacher Corps needs in the chapter by Collins as he outlines a typology of different types of Teacher Centers.

The management plan outlined by Collins can likewise be seen in reference to governance mechanisms of Teacher Corps projects, as can other portions of the chapter. The article might best be seen as an allegory to the potential reinforcement of the two different concepts — together they may hold the key to the ultimate in professional regeneration of teaching skills for the betterment of child-centered education.

TEACHER/TEACHING CENTERS AND THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

By James F. Collins

Syracuse University

> "...My interest is in the future because I am going to spend the rest of my life there..." — Charles Kettering.

"Change" — A Relatively New Experience

While some still disagree, change, as a significant reality in our lives, is a very recent experiential phenomenon. Some will argue that "we" human beings have always experienced change. The facts of the matter assert that quite the contrary is true. Until very recently change has taken place at a pace that was almost imperceptible. It took three, or four, or perhaps even five lifetimes before change, once begun, reached a stage of development where it became obvious to or had any real impact on the life of the average citizen. Today change is a very real part of the everyday life of each and every one of us.

Bennett, (1970), points out that the last 50,000 years of the history of mankind, divided into lifespans of approximately 60 to 65 years, leaves a total of about 800 such lifespans. Of these 800 lifespans, at least 650 were spent in caves. Only in the last 70 lifetimes has it been possible to purposefully communicate learning and experience from one generation to another. We have been able to communicate via the printed page for only the last half dozen lifetimes. For little more than 4 lifetimes have we been able to record time accurately; and somewhere within the last 2 lifetimes we had our first experience with the electric motor. The overwhelming majority of the things we have come to depend on as essential to everyday living (radio, television, automobile, household appliances, plastics, central heating, etc.) are but *one* lifetime old.

Furthermore, he points out that this becomes even more striking as we come to realize that the cathedrals of Europe and the pyramids of Egypt were built to last until the end of time, but the more recently constructed New York World Trade Center or the new airport in Dallas-Fort Worth were built for something less than two lifetimes. By that time, they will no longer serve our needs and will be torn down or renovated for some other purpose. This is referred to as planned obsolescence.

Thus, we cannot help but be struck with the contrasts between the *intransigence* of the past and the *impermanence* of the present.

It is within this context that we look at the incredible task of preparing and renewing teachers.

Teacher Education — In Need of Change

To keep pace — to stay abreast — Teacher Education has to move aggressively and dramatically toward new and different ways of organizing and managing its resources which will produce significant and sorely needed changes in preservice and inservice Teacher Education. More specifically, we need Teacher Education programs that will:

a. Enable teachers to relate to students as individuals with changing needs.

b. Assist teachers in the diagnosis of student needs and in the development of alternative strategies to meet those needs.

c. Facilitate the development of effective interpersonal communication skills in teachers.

d. Discover unique and effective ways of integrating theory and practice, campus and off-campus, preservice and inservice.

e. Provide more highly focused training experiences ranging from observation to carefully simulated and/or controlled encounters with teaching (via peer teaching, microteaching, miniteaching, reflective teaching, etc.), to full classroom responsibilities over extended periods of time.

f. Place greater emphasis on broad-based decision making with meaningful involvement of the teaching profession in the critical decisions related to training at both the preservice and inservice levels.

Teacher Centers — A Concept with Great Promise and Confusion

The Teacher Center is an important concept and vehicle to accomplish these goals. Joyce and Weil (1973): *2*) make the observation that "...new concepts are constantly emerging so that [we] can reorganize and shape [our] thinking about old problems and phenomena in more *powerful* ways......the Teacher Center is such a concept..."

Granting that the concept of Teacher Centers is one of great promise and utility, Howsam (1974: 9) observes that: "Any serious examination of the embryonic phenomenon of Teacher Centers tends to reduce one to...a state of rational disorientation."

Need for Clarification and Precision

Among others a major contributing reason for such disorientation is the undisciplined use of the terms *Center* and *Teacher Center*.

> One of the most overworked terms appearing in the language of educators today is the word *center*. We hear and see frequent reference

> to open education centers, remedial centers, resource centers, R & D centers, curriculum centers, diagnostic centers, teacher education centers, student teaching centers, teacher centers, teaching centers, and many others." (Collins, 1974)

In regard to Centers for the education of teachers, the use of the terminology is equally confusing. Schmieder and Yarger observe that:

> Probably no other new educational concept offers us such a rich array of names and acronyms as the teaching center. The most commonly used are teacher center, teaching center, learning center, teacher education center, staff development center, educational cooperative, and training complex...A National Teacher Center Study conducted in 1973 by the Syracuse Teacher Center Study revealed more than 200 different titles for the 600 sites studied." (1974)

The organizational and functional diversity is even more confusing. Some treat Teacher Centers as places, some as informational clearinghouses, some as staff development or materials development centers, some as organizational entities, and others perceive them as mere concepts.

Toward a Typology

Someone interested in a systematic analysis of the organizational and functional types of Teacher Centers, should refer to Schmieder and Yarger (1974) where *seven* organizational types of centers and *four* functional types of Centers are identified:

Type of Center	Client(s)	Primary Purpose(s)/Function(s)
Preservice	Teacher preparation students seeking initial certification. Predominantly student teachers.	Provide training (primarily laboratory) experiences for teacher preparation students.
Inservice	Practicing professionals seeking advanced training and/or job-related skills. May be personnel seeking advanced certification and/or degrees as well.	Provide inservice and continuing education for employed personnel in the form of courses, workshops, seminars, or job-related teacher-centered activities designed to meet the day-to-day needs of the practicing personnel.

Corporate—Preservice/	Teacher preparation students as well as employed personnel including teachers, administrators, supervisors, para-professionals, social workers, etc.	Promote the improvement of instruction while at the same time providing for relevant job-embedded preparation and continuing renewal of both pre-service students and practicing personnel- can also be for community education together with program and materials development.

Preservice Centers

Preservice Centers, typically are off-campus sites (schools) where, by mutual agreement, with local districts, a college or university places a number of teacher preparation students.

While this is a tremendous step forward from the conventional pattern of assigning students to widely scattered classrooms throughout many school systems, they typically have a limited purpose and focus and perpetuate unilateral control and unilateral decision-making. The college or university still largely determines policy, standards and procedures.

More recently, this type of Center has been taking on a broader function with more extensive involvement of groups such as schools, state departments of education, and professional agencies. In some cases the Center is system-wide as opposed to one or two school buildings.

With the rise of this kind of cooperative action two or three other things are becoming more prevalent: 1) full-time site coordinators are being employed; 2) joint councils for cooperative planning are being created; and 3) more systematic efforts are being made to train and deploy supervising teachers.

However, upon examination of this kind of Center, one would have to agree that the focus, while important and by all measures justifiable, is limited primarily to the needs of the training institution and its clients, the teacher preparation students. It does deal more adequately with the administrative and logistical problems of providing field experiences for preservice students. Only to a lesser extent, has it been able to deal with solid in-depth programmatic changes dictated by the more expansive needs of all cooperating agencies.

Inservice Centers

Inservice centers typically focus on the needs of already employed personnel. The majority of these have completed a four-year college program which includes a fairly traditional sequence of professional courses, reviewed and approved by the appropriate state agency. Graduates are certified for teaching on the basis of a statement from the preparing institution that they have successfully completed the approved program in the prescribed manner. As one examines this procedure, only one thing is certain — the candidate has been successful in passing college courses. While there is generally included a direct experience component (student teaching), it is frequently considered to be too little and too late, and far too often is seen as being inadequate in terms of preparing one to suddenly assume the complex and awesome responsibilities of the "real world" of today's teacher.

Programs in Inservice Centers vary greatly. There is little consistency from center to center or school to school. They range from poorly coordinated, poorly planned, poorly executed, impoverished programs dealing with "administrivia" to well organized, systematically executed, well-supported programs dealing with the current high-priority needs of the clients (i.e., the practicing professionals and/or paraprofessionals).

The terms "Teacher Center" or "Teachers' Centres" are most aptly applied to Inservice Centers since their focus is directed toward meeting the needs of inservice (practicing) personnel, the majority of whom are teachers.

Teacher Centers, as the name implies, focus on the inservice development of teachers but may not necessarily be the creation of or under the control of teachers.[1]

Teachers' Centres, on the other hand, are usually the indirect creation of teachers, and usually exist of, by and for teachers. They take their origin from the British prototype which had as its primary function to develop, "Teacher-acceptable answers to Teacher-defined, Teacher-researched problems." (Bailey, 1971)

Three propositions underline the British Teachers' Centres:[2] 1) That educational reform will come only from those charged with the basic educational responsibility; 2) That teachers are unlikely to change their ways of doing things based upon the platitudes of reformers; and 3) That teachers will take reform seriously only when they are responsible for defining their own educational problems, delineating their own needs, and receiving help on their own terms.

Hence, the key characteristic of the British Centre is that the development and control of programs is with the local teachers. A full- or part-time person serves to coordinate the activities of the Centre but the intent, if not the reality, is that the program remains in the hands of the teachers.

Programs typically evolve from a local teacher-dominated management committee or an advisory committee to encourage self-improvement programs for purposes of upgrading educational performance. Teachers are able to review existing curricula, practices, and innovations developed by both commercial and local talents through exhibits and promotional activities. Experimental classes on community, adolescent, and/or family problems, which may involve other educational personnel (social workers, parents, health officers, etc.), round out the British Centre program.

To have reform emerge from teachers' own experiences and creative impulses is a relatively new and unresearched phenomenon. The programs, budgets, facilities, and achievements of Centres vary widely from Centre to Centre, but in the main, innovation has resulted from the endeavors of creative and enthusiastic teachers.

The noticeable strengths of the Teachers' Centre (British Model) revolve around the fact that it places responsibility for improved performance and the assessment of professional needs with the teachers themselves. Furthermore, the attendance to local needs as assessed by the teachers would appear to ensure meaningful, developmental, renewal experiences for teachers.

Teachers' Centres are social institutions as well — where teachers can relax, get to know one another, and informally swap ideas and experiences. One of the reasons why most of them are physically separate from active school buildings is to provide a sense of proprietary informality. Because the teachers are not in a deferential milieu, they somehow feel that all of this is their own: They are given a genuine chance to take the initiative in professional leadership and reform.

In general, such Inservice Centers promote little involvement of colleges or universities. Some have no formal relationship with any established agencies, not even the professional teacher organizations. Some, on the other hand, involve teachers' associations and school systems but only a very few involve institutions of higher education, usually by placing them in consultant roles.

Corporate Preservice/Inservice "Teaching" Centers[3]

Teacher Education Centers or **Teaching Centers** include both preservice preparation and inservice renewal of teachers.

> ...The focus is not only on teaching but also on the effects of teaching (i.e., learning). More typically, this type of center is located in schools and much of the activity takes place during the school day, with the governance, management, and decision making shared between and among the participating groups. (Collins, 1974)

The Teaching Center is an effort to bring together participating organizations into a functioning partnership where cooperation in teacher education is a *sine-qua-non.* It is built on the premise that the essence of true cooperation is joint decision-making with the resultant concepts of *joint responsibility* and *joint accountability.*

The Teaching Center is designed to meet the needs of teacher self-improvement while creating effective learning environments for students. It is organized to meet the needs and interests of experienced professionals (as well as pre-professionals) in a way that permits each to become a student of teaching at their own particular level of professional development.

Physically, a Teaching Center is a cluster of schools, an environment where teaching and the effects of teaching (learning) can be studied and researched. Organizationally, it is a partnership between a school system and one or more preparing institutions, with the possible inclusion of the professional associations and the state department of education.

Ideally, each Center has a full-time coordinator, jointly selected and employed by the collaborating partners, whose role is to unify the personnel and material resources of the cooperating agencies to provide training experiences for the preservice students assigned to the Center; and to organize inservice programs and activities for the Center staff. Stationed in the Center schools, the coordinator is in constant contact with and serves as a continuing resource to both the preservice and the inservice personnel.

College personnel are not limited to working with pre-professionals, but also function in the capacity of curriculum and teacher education resource consultants to the Center staff. With additional training, the teachers assume increased responsibility for the supervision of the pre-professionals and free the college supervisors to work more directly as inservice staff trainers. Thus the public school personnel assume increased responsibility for the preservice program and in return the college or university assumes increased responsibility for the inservice program.

While pre-professionals develop *basic* teaching competence, the professional teachers develop *advanced* teaching competence as well as expertise in specialized areas of personal interest. In each of the Centers a sequence of carefully planned inservice workshops, seminars and programs is developed by or with the teachers. Programs are developed in a Teaching Center only in response to needs clearly delineated by the Center personnel. These programs are designed to promote the study of teaching and the effects of teaching. Among other things, they focus on techniques of developing creative learning environments, the analysis of the teaching act, the study of specific teaching/learning interactions, instructional strategies, curriculum evaluation and redesign and ways to improve instructional effectiveness.

Center staff members can also be given opportunities to participate in a wide range of professional development experiences, including attendance at local, regional and national conferences, workshops and clinics, microteaching, reflective teaching and simulation labs. National figures can be brought to the Center to work with the staff in developing and implementing creative programs. The Centers become vehicles for validating and disseminating promising innovations developed either locally or elsewhere.

College faculty members can work with teachers in updating content and methodology in specific instructional areas. The close association between college and public school faculties leads to the involvement of public school personnel in professional courses, and college personnel become more involved in the curriculum of the public schools.

The Teaching Center concept has proven applicable to all types of educational situations: elementary and secondary schools; urban and suburban schools, open-space classrooms and self-contained classrooms; large group instruction; small group instruction; and individualized instruction.

The Teaching Center shares the responsibility for decision-making regarding professional development and draws upon the resources of those organizations and institutions that have historically, legally, and traditionally had some responsibility for teacher education within the American educational system. Concerned with the development of a systematic, yet personalized approach to pre-professional and professional teacher education, the Center is governed by a board composed of representatives of the schools, colleges or universities, professional associations, state departments of education, and the local community.

Preliminary research indicates that center teachers feel that they have control over those programs that serve to revitalize their teaching. Teachers also indicate significant satisfaction with their ability to define their own educational needs and to dictate the methods of receiving help with them.

The strengths of this plan lie in its formation of a corporate relationship, thereby sharing the responsibility and decision-making for improved teacher effectiveness and learner performance with all of the key members of the educational system. The resulting cooperative venture has great potential for diagnosis of preservice and inservice staff needs, and the development of strategies for the achievement of improved teacher performance through the evaluation of learner outcomes.

Perhaps the most notable difficulty in this plan is that of establishing and maintaining a working partnership among the groups. This does not come easily or quickly, but once developed it proves to be highly productive. It provides for the open challenge of ideas and techniques with the result that the best tend to come forward and remain. Any program or innovation which emerges from collaborative policy-making and program-development processes, and is conceived and carried out by the Center staff, has genuine credibility and a far greater chance for success than one imposed from outside.

Many reasons argue strongly for the preparation and renewal of teachers taking place in and being supported by some kind of Teacher/Teaching Center. Without such a vehicle there is little hope of achieving significant change. Research on change shows that for significant change to occur, two very important conditions have to be met: a) those who will be affected by the change have to have a sense of ownership and control over it (which means they have to become agents of change as opposed to being objects of change), and b) some vehicle or mechanism which facilitates the desired change and enables it to endure the pressures of opposition and rejection (which inevitably accompany any significant change) must be utilized. The Teaching Center has a unique potential to meet both of these conditions.

In regard to the first point, an essential characteristic of a Teacher/Teaching Center ought to be that the teachers are able to specify their own needs and priorities as well as determining the means by which these needs and priorities will be met. In regard to the second point, the Teacher/Teaching Center is both a place and a vehicle for designing, facilitating, and promoting desired change.

Professional renewal is synonymous with improvement of professional performance, — therefore, every professional development program must begin by specifying standards and criteria against which professional performance will be judged. Basic logic would dictate that teachers have to play a very significant role in defining professional competence and the criteria against which they will be judged. They should also have a determining role in designing programs intended to help meet those criteria. An interesting side effect of this process is that when teachers begin to differentiate competencies they also begin to differentiate teacher tasks. This tends to result in priority use of teacher time and talents. Thus, nonprofessional tasks are stripped away, leaving time for creative professional growth experiences to be planned into the teaching day rather than placing them entirely outside of the teaching day and outside of the teaching environment, — the more traditional pattern.

One could hardly imagine a system that would be less effective in improving teaching than the one we now use. Typically we send teachers away from their teaching environment, after a long, busy, exhausting day, to take courses at the university or to participate in regional workshops. Because the involvement of the teacher in the planning and directing of these experiences is minimal, the interest, enthusiasm and perceived benefit is frequently marginal. On the contrary, if inservice education is going to have any significant direct effect on improving the education of children — then it has to have a much closer physical and programmatic affinity to particular schools and the purposes and priorities of the teaching staff therein.

One value of the Teacher/Training Center is that it has a unique capability of eliminating many of the undesirable current practices in inservice education as well as extending the possibilities of offering creative professional renewal opportunities.

It can do this by providing a locus for teachers to assemble — hopefully a place that is physically attractive and socially as well as professionally stimulating — a place equipped with an up-to-date resource center, a media and communications center, a materials development laboratory, a teaching laboratory, access to a computer center, a diagnostic center, as well as experimental classrooms and laboratories. It can also serve to promote professional staff development through a continuing roster of individual and group opportunities offered in the form of workshops, seminars, courses, interschool visitations, released time for conferences, travel, and study, and a whole array of practical, internship-type experiences.

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Over and above all of these, it can give leadership to faculty efforts. The center coordinator can organize the interests of the teachers and direct them toward profitable outcomes, facilitating the planning and peer decision-making processes, as well as identifying and making available the resources to achieve the goals of the Center staff. It should also serve to stimulate and renew the aspirations of the teacher. Fundamental changes in behavior that result in better teaching come not because teachers have been exposed to new and different things but because there has been a change in their beliefs, purposes, values, and convictions which automatically overflow into teaching. The nature of a properly functioning Teacher/Teaching Center is such that it provides opportunities and resources that uniquely revitalize a teacher's mastery of basic knowledge and skills. More importantly an opportunity is provided for continuous sharpening and extension of the teacher's ability to make more appropriate decisions regarding critical classroom interactions.

In a world changing so rapidly that a college program is obsolete before the graduate can put it to use; in a profession where decision-making has become a highly complex process — new and more effective mechanisms need to be developed and implemented.

The education of teachers, whether preservice or inservice, is no exception. The concept that teaching competence is synonymous with a college degree (or less), that teacher training is basically the responsibility of the colleges or universities, and the decisions are exclusively the prerogative of college professors and/or college supervisors...has been tested and found wanting. It is evident that:

1. The processes related to governance and decision-making in future Teacher Education are going to be complex and involved.
2. Centers of some kind are a *sine-qua-non* to facilitate the complex tasks of articulating theory and practice, field and campus.
3. New models of organizational and management systems will have to be developed to accomplish these complex tasks.

Organization/Management of Centers

The final report of the Task Force on Improvement and Reform in American Education uses the term "management" in "relations to the planning, implementing, evaluating and revising of the totality of personnel development center activities, including that of instruction." (Denemark, 1974)

This obviously is a rather sweeping use of the term. Webster's Dictionary defines management as the "judicious use of means to accomplish an end or set of ends." Simple logic dictates that the selection and utilization of means should depend in large part on the goals or objectives one has in mind. The goals and objectives of a Center are going to be tied to the needs it is committed to serve. In some cases these are institutional needs and in other cases the primary motivations will arise directly out of the personal needs of the clients.

Spectrum of Needs Motivating the Development of Centers for the Education of Teachers

Institutional Needs

- School System
  - Inservice Training
  - Curriculum Development
  - Instructional Improvements
- University
  - Research laboratories
  - Sites for field experiences
  - Sites for program validation
  - Preservice training
- Professional Organizations
  - Broad based decision-making
  - Professional accountability and control
- Community
  - Better understanding of schools' goals
  - More meaningful involvement in goal setting
  - Curriculum planning
  - Curriculum planning

Personnel Needs

- Teachers/Administration
  - Instructional materials development
  - Inservice Training
  - Shared decision-making in regard to curriculum and professional matters
- Paraprofessionals
  - On-the-job training
- College Instructors
  - R & D sites
  - Sites for laboratory experiences for preservice students
  - Sites to validate and field test innovative programs and instructional materials
- Student Teachers
  - Supportive environment to study and practice teaching
- Parents
  - Training as classroom aides
  - Training in tutoring skills
  - Involvement in program and materials development

(NOTE: Institutional needs and personnel needs are not mutually exclusive. They can and frequently do overlap.)

As one begins to deal with the management of teacher centers from the perspective of 1) the current pace of "change," 2) the diverse array of "needs" to be met and purposes to be served, 3) the increasing complexities of the task of developing relevant, creditable, preservice and inservice teacher education programs, and 4) the diversity of functions and organizational patterns of centers — the task of dealing with Center management becomes extremely *complex*.

Pitted against these perspectives any management plan of a center should be:

a. *Systemic* — not haphazard, casual, or piecemeal, but well conceived and soundly based on a systems management plan. It follows:

   1. That unless a management system is specifically designed to satisfy unique functions (purposes), and can operate within specified *performance* and *design* constraints, it will be dysfunctional.
   2. That the job(s) to be done or the function(s) to be served must be clearly explicated before beginning.
   3. That expected *inputs* and *outputs* (including interactions) must be calculated as closely as possible before beginning program implementation. (This should be done in terms of the inputs and outputs of participating individuals as well as groups.)
   4. That the assemblage of units working together must be orderly, purposeful, and mutually rewarding.

b. *Comprehensive* — It must take into consideration the totality of the Center functions, including such things as:

   1. The overall *coordination* of the planning, designing, implementing, evaluating and revising of the Center functions and activities.
   2. The *translation* of the decisions of the policy-making group into Center procedures, practices and programs.
   3. The *definition* of the "Chain of Command" including specifying *roles* and *responsibilities* of individuals and/or constituent groups.
   4. The *allocation of resources* — Efficient and effective allocation of the material, fiscal, personnel resources must be carefully managed in accordance with predetermined center goals or intended outcomes.
   5. The *development and maintenance* of an efficient two-way or multi-way *communication system* between all parties and individuals involved.
   6. The development and installation of program(s) — This should be based on a continuous (empathic) needs assessment system that identifies the personal needs of the clients to be served. The program should have depth and variety in order to meet the diverse needs of the Center clientele and should be administered with openness and flexibility with an eye toward

increasing accessibility and personalization. Careful consideration should be given to the nature and extent of options.

7. The *assessment* and *evaluation* of the total functions of the Center should be planned from the beginning and executed with purpose and precision. The results of these efforts should be carefully fed back into the system and made readily available to all interested parties.

8. The *regeneration* and *revision* of Center direction and/or functions based on the feedback data should be an ongoing process. An Intent-Action-Feedback model might be used:

1
Intent-Plans
are specified

4
Plans are modified in
line with feedback

2
Action—program is piloted
and/or field tested

3
Feedback is presented
and analyzed

9. The *provision* for *free, open* and *equitable participation,* in the governance and decision-making processes of the Center, for all who want to be involved and have a justifiable purpose for being involved.

c. *Consistent* — There should be a high degree of consistency between the stated goals and the delivery and operational systems. The management plan ought to facilitate genuine goal attainment (i.e. Center functions ought to serve Center purposes).

d. *Facilitating* — The Center management plan should facilitate the optimum development of each individual to be served by the Center. It should likewise facilitate the development and implementation of a unique variety of program options. It should facilitate the training of preservice students as well as of innovative on-site inservice courses, workshops, seminars, internships, interschool and intra-school visitations, and attendance at national, state, and local conferences.

e. *Formal* — enough to meet the demands created by the increasing complexities of corporate program planning and informal enough to ensure sincere concern for meeting the personal needs of center clients.

f. *Proactive* — in that it assumes a positive, creative, leadership posture and proceeds to act accordingly to the direct benefit of all personnel in the Center. A Center should not only "keep store" but should provide pivotal leadership in such things as (1) developing, piloting and disseminating new and innovative training programs, (2) developing and field testing protocol materials and/or instructional materials, (3) creating new sources of resources for teachers including "lobbying" for positive legislative and fiscal changes to the benefit of teachers — both preservice and inservice if both exist in the Center, (4) promoting better human, public, and professional relations among all participating parties, (5) designing, conducting, and disseminating research and research findings, (6) developing new incentives for professional educators to become involved in teacher renewal programs.

g. *Differentiated* — The Management plan ought to provide *equal* access to, and participation in, Center policy-making but should *differentiate* the level or degree of opportunity and/or responsibility for the operation and management of the Center.

h. *Equitable* and *Accountable* — All persons and all agencies should be assured fair access to the decision-making processes and to the resources and/or benefits of the Center. This includes teachers, administrators, students, professors, and community people. In terms of fiscal accountability, all fiscal resources must be managed expertly and efficiently. Strict accounting systems need to be used and full disclosure of all fiscal transactions be made to all parties.

Beyond these, the management and organization of a Center should promote and facilitate whenever possible, job-embedded "on-site" training in the "work-a-day" teaching/learning environment, during the work day. It should constantly strive to develop new incentives for personnel involvement. Likewise, it should strive to integrate theory and practice, campus and off-campus, preservice and inservice.

In general, Centers having a more narrow focus (i.e., inservice only, or preservice only, or preservice elementary only) will be easier to initiate and easier to maintain. Likewise, it is easier to initiate and maintain a center where there are fewer participating agencies, as opposed to a large number.

"Limited-purpose" Centers demand a less sophisticated, less formal management system, and seem to be able to survive the "perils" of poor organization better than the "multi-purpose", complete preservice/inservice teaching centers. The complexity and comprehensiveness of a "Teaching" Center (i.e. preservice-inservice, multi-purpose, multi-institutional) demand a well designed, expertly executed, sophisticated management system.

Even though centers should be organized in such a way as to give them a degree of independence and identity in their own right, including their own salaried staff, budget, and facilities — caution should be exercised lest that which was initiated to serve the needs of the "parent" groups, will begin to serve its own organizational needs rather than those that motivated its creation initially. A well organized Center with a good management plan will inevitably become increasingly independent, but the management system should have a "built-in" accountability system insuring that the needs of the clients are not unintentionally overshadowed by those (self-serving needs) of the Center.

It appears that the days ahead will be marked with dynamic change and increased complexity. I agree with Bob Howsam that teacher centers are vehicles of great promise and utility. We have a very real opportunity — perhaps greater than ever before — to make courageous, responsible, visionary professional decisions that will truly make a difference in the practice of our profession. It remains to be seen, when, how and to what extent we will seize the opportunity and rise to the challenge.

FOOTNOTE

[1] As pointed out earlier, there is a great lack of precision in the way the term *Teacher Center* is used. In some cases resource center, open-education center, materials development center, social and cultural center, humanistic center, etc., wear the name "Teacher" Center. However, it should be noted that we are limiting the discussion to Centers for the Education of Teachers.

[2] This section adapted from Stephek K. Bailey, "Teachers' Centers," address to the NEA-GRIP Seminar, Boston, Massachusetts, November 1971.

[3] Adapted from James F. Collins, "Teacher Centers and Teacher Renewal," *Six Critical Issues in Education, edited by David Tronsgard (Denver: NASBE, 1972), p. 61ff.*

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SECTION III
The Project Experience

Chapter 1 — Conceptualizing School-Based Inservice Education Programs

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Helen Berrier, Evaluator, The University of Texas at Austin/Austin Independent School District Teacher Corps

Chapter 2 — An Inservice Model for Mathematics/Science Teachers

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Chapter 3 — The Inservice Experience at Prairie View A & M

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Chapter 4 — Field Based Clinical Inservice Education: A Case Study

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CHAPTER 1

How one school came to grips with the problem in inservice education...what inservice meant...what the teacher really did (can help) other schools rethink their programs...to come up with alternatives that better suit their individual needs.

The authors detail a year-long summary of a Teacher Corps co-sponsored inservice program at Allison Elementary School in Austin, Texas. Activities are presented for a workshop program which developed 45 generic teaching competencies. Through needs assessment, teachers were prepared for three separate "tracks" leading to their year's professional development.

CONCEPTUALIZING SCHOOL-BASED INSERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Rubén Olivárez and *Helen Berrier*

Introduction

It's one of *those* days again. The kids aren't at school today, but you are. It's an inservice day for the teachers. Some of your colleagues are headed for the district-wide workshop on language arts materials, while you perhaps will be attending a seminar at the university on teaching geography to elementary students. Perhaps you feel slightly dissatisfied; or the inservice workshops you have attended in the past either did not suit your particular needs or were difficult to apply once you got back to your classroom. In other words, you feel pretty powerless about the whole idea of inservice education and the way it's implemented in your school.

Incidents and *feelings* like this are played and replayed throughout the school year all over the country. Given the importance of meaningful professional development for those involved in the education of children, the current situation appears to be rather inadequate. But what can be done about it?

This chapter is a report of how one school came to grips with the problem of inservice education — what inservice meant, what the teacher *really* did in the classroom, what teachers needed to improve their abilities, and how training was provided to meet those needs. What follows is a step-by-step account of the entire planning and implementation process undertaken by Allison Elementary School faculty and staff under the auspices of the Cycle XI Teacher Corps Project of the University of Texas at Austin and the Austin Independent School District. By presenting some of the ideas that worked (and some of those that didn't) perhaps other schools can re-think their inservice programs and to come up with alternatives that better suit their individual needs.

The section is divided into five parts. Part One is the "re-thinking" process which was mentioned above — teaming a faculty for professional development. Part Two is the heart of an inservice program for teachers — what *is* a teacher?, what do teachers *do*? The third section deals with ways to prepare teachers for needs assessments by expanding awareness of role behaviors and skills. Methods for assessing individual training needs of teachers are the substance of Part Four. The fifth and final part demonstrates how the Allison faculty actually got its inservice program off the ground during the spring 1977 semester.

It is difficult to acknowledge all of the people who have contributed to this document. The teachers and administrators of the school, as well as Teacher Corps staff and directorship, are primarily responsible for the ideas, processes, and methods which will be presented. In actuality, though, this document is a compilation of reports written by Teacher Corps staff throughout the Cycle XI project's planning phase and first-year operations.

Teaming Up a Faculty for Professional Development

Let's start out with a couple of assumptions about inservice education for teachers. The ultimate aim of continuous professional staff development is the improvement of educational programs for students. An effective teacher education program should possess two characteristics — adaptiveness and flexibility. This is to say that such a program would first of all be based upon identified needs which have been derived by systematically assessing the skills, capabilities, attitudes, environmental context, and general state of affairs which exist with and between people and the institutions involved. Such a program would be tailored to those specific needs identified as relating to such crucial variables as goals of the school, and the community, teacher competencies, desired instructional modes, unique organizational plans, and present constraints of the physical setting. As new information is received from on-going program evaluation and trainee needs assessment, there will occur the development of new training experiences.

These assumptions about the ideal inservice program suggest one overriding characteristic — that the program will be *school-based*. That is, the program, from start to finish, will derive from the local *individual* school — not from a higher level within the school district organization. The school's faculty and principal will be responsible for tailoring its inservice training to the specific unique needs of its teachers and students.

By assuming the "ownership" of its staff development, the teachers become personally responsible for putting together a coherent program which has sound foundations and activities directly related to its underpinnings. For that reason, planning becomes absolutely crucial for the assurance of the program's success.

Once you have a faculty committed to putting together such a program, what comes next? A steering committee representative of everyone who is touched by the program should be formed as soon as possible. Grade level representatives, teacher aides, special education teachers, community representatives, principal (and assistant principal, if there is one), and a consultant for data collection comprise the basic membership of this committee. In Allison's case, Teacher Corps staff were also on the committee. This group will ultimately be responsible for giving the leadership to the program; it is also instrumental in "teaming up the faculty for professional development."

For every step of the planning process, it is important to make sure that everyone has the same set of assumptions about the concept of inservice education. This "teaming up" process begins by having the entire faculty meet as a group to discuss and compare their ideas of what inservice education is and what it ought to be. This first step is important in that it brings all of the teachers to a common ground with regard to the direction which the rest of the planning will take. The Allison steering committee opted for a workshop which was held one day after school. This is what happened.

Figure 1 gives a "flow chart" of the workshop's activities. First, the entire faculty met in the cafeteria for a general introduction of the afternoon's activities. By numbering off (in pairs), the teachers were divided into two discussion groups. These groups were sent to separate open-area classrooms where they were introduced to their small group leaders (members of the steering committee) and re-divided into groups of about four teachers each, plus a leader. These small groups met in various parts of the classrooms and were presented with the following activities and questions:

Question 1: What is inservice education? Each individual in the group will write his own definition, share it with the group, and then a group statement will be generated. This statement should be brief; one or two sentences should suffice.

Question 2: Why have inservice education? This should be addressed, as should the following questions, according to the current status of the issue and the ideal status. A list of possible topics for discussion include:

1. Improve self: professionally and/or personally
2. Satisfy central administrative pressures
3. Receive college credit
4. Qualify for salary increases
5. Work towards advanced degree
6. Meet an overall school need, such as integration problems
7. Introduce change in curriculum, scholastic emphasis
8. Provide employment for central administration staff (This is a loaded one, isn't it?)
9. Make up for deficits in preservice training
10. Submit to faddish pressures.

Question 3: Who should plan inservice education? A list of possible topics for discussion includes:

1. Central administration
2. Inhouse personnel: who, what combinations, how are they selected
3. Community and/or parents: in what capacity

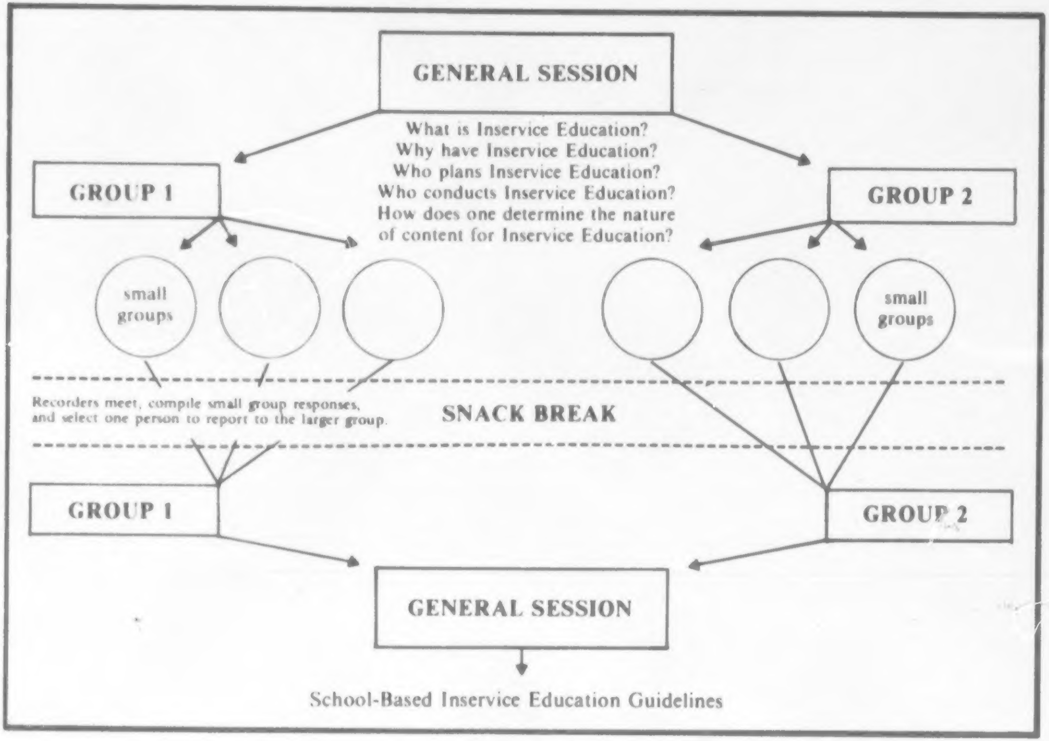
GENERAL SESSION
What is Inservice Education?
Why have Inservice Education?
Who plans Inservice Education?
Who conducts Inservice Education?
How does one determine the nature of content for Inservice Education?
GROUP 1
GROUP 2
small groups
small groups
Recorders meet, compile small group responses, and select one person to report to the larger group.
SNACK BREAK
GROUP 1
GROUP 2
GENERAL SESSION
School-Based Inservice Education Guidelines

Figure 1

4. Local or state teacher representatives
5. University
6. Students

Question 4: Who should provide inservice education? List of possible topics for discussion include those listed for question 3.

Question 5: How should content area of inservice education be selected and what content areas should be included? (focus on the role of the teacher). Key issues include the distinction between central administration control and local school control. Also, is content decided on the basis of individual teacher needs or current educational fads? This last point should touch off a discussion of the role of the teacher and competencies necessary for effective teaching. Additionally, in establishing the content of training, it must be decided how to distinguish an area of interest and an area of actual need.

A couple of points need to be made about these small group meetings. The group leaders must have had a chance to "dry run" the process before hand. Have the principal, committee chairperson, or someone else lead all of the small group leaders through the discussion activities/questions before the workshop to ensure that every group will be getting approximately the same treatment. At the beginning of the small group meetings a recorder should be appointed to be responsible for writing down the group's various responses. Finally, *everyone* participates in the discussions. The success of the "teaming" will depend on how much the individual faculty members feel a part of the team. That can't be discovered unless they contribute their ideas during the small group discussions.

After the small groups finished, the recorders met and designated one person to report the compiled results of the small group meetings to the larger group while the teachers took a break. Such "maintenance" is important in keeping workshop participants from losing interest in the activities.

After the break, the small groups reconvened as a total group to look at the compiled responses to the discussion questions. Once again, the point of having several levels of sharing was to assure that common frame of reference.

The final activity of the day was to reconvene as a total faculty to share what the two large groups had discussed. Not surprisingly, both groups came up with just about the same ideas and perceptions about the way inservice is and the way it ought to be. The Allison teachers felt certain characteristics should be included in an ideal program:

1. Teachers will have the major say in determining what their inservice program is to be.
2. A system for assessing inservice needs of professional staff will be in use.

3. Inservice education will be an integral part of a total school program improvement. It will take place before any new curriculum changes are carried out.

4. Every participant, (teacher, teacher aide, parent, principal) will have the opportunity to learn how to do his/her job better.

5. Opportunities will be given to learn from colleagues in the same school or district. There will be opportunities to visit schools and teachers in other areas.

6. There will be opportunity to prepare for career advancement if a teacher wishes and if appropriately determined by university and school district officials.

7. The principal will also have inservice education.

8. The program offers more alternatives than just college courses or workshops.

9. The resources of nearby universities and other education institutions will be utilized in planning and implementing inservice programs.

10. The community will understand and support the need for inservice education.

11. There will be tangible rewards for inservice growth.

12. There will be an ongoing process for linking preservice and inservice education.

A close examination of these program characteristics reveals some readily predictable accountability and service delivery outcomes. It is expected that the implementation of these program guidelines will result in change in the school climate. By bringing the decision-making process to teachers and thus closer to the "problem level," changes in school organizations and program implementation practices should occur.

Conceptualizing Roles of Teachers

What is a Teacher? What do Teachers Do?

As mentioned earlier, herein lies the heart of an inservice program for teachers. The foundation, the underpinnings of the program must be grounded in a firm conceptualization of the role of the teacher. The role description presented in this section was derived by the University of Texas at Austin and the local Teacher Corps project. During the spring of 1974 the Institute for Teacher Education at the University of Texas appointed a college-wide committee to conceptualize the teaching role to derive generic competencies deemed essential to the teaching act. After conceptualizing the role of schools and universities, the committee identified the following categories under which major generic teaching competencies could be delineated:

1. Assessing and diagnosing

2. Planning activities
3. Conducting instruction
4. Management of the environment and resources
5. Evaluating instruction
6. Evaluating self
7. Working in school/community context
8. Working with auxiliary personnel (teacher aides, volunteer parents, special education)

The committee then proceeded to have university professors, teachers, principals, and other school personnel review and react to the framework of competencies. Several attempts were made to involve the entire faculty of the College of Education in a curriculum review process by utilizing their framework. Various committees for reviewing the different programs were formed within the College of Education. The Teacher Corps staff then participated in the various committees formed.

For the Cycle XI program, the Teacher Corps staff reconceptualized the role of the teacher and redefined the generic competencies by analyzing the reports of curricular program reviews and competency-based teacher education work from other Teacher Corps sites.

This work resulted in a list of 45 competencies which are thought to comprise the total role of the teacher. The teaching act itself — what actually happens day-to-day in the classroom — includes the first six competency categories. The last two categories include areas in the working day of a teacher that were considered equally important and require attention for competency development.

The role of the teacher forms the focus of any inservice education program. Without a clear understanding of the wide range of abilities which teachers are expected to possess, it would be impossible to put together a coherent program based on teacher needs because there would be no rational foundation for the selection of training experiences.

Figure 2 is the framework used by the Allison faculty.

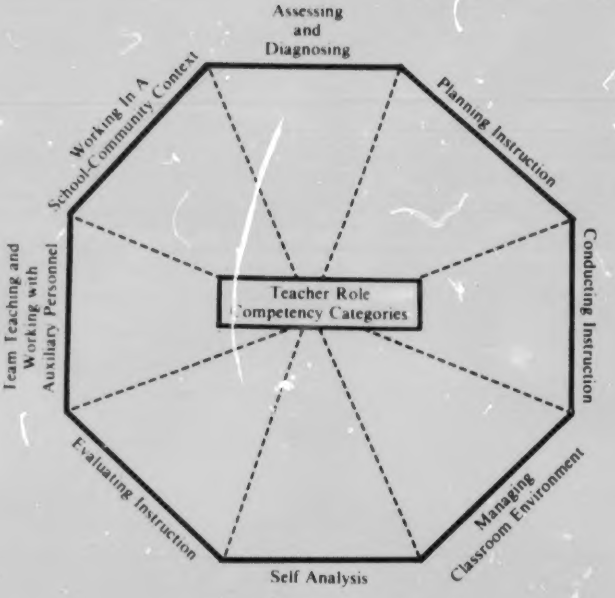
Assessing and Diagnosing
Planning Instruction
Conducting Instruction
Managing Classroom Environment
Self Analysis
Evaluating Instruction
Team Teaching and Working with Auxiliary Personnel
Working In A School-Community Context
Teacher Role Competency Categories

Figure 2.

List of forty-five Competencies

I. **The Teaching Act**

Assessing and Diagnosing

1. Assesses student's language dominance
2. Assesses the student's needs in subject areas
3. Identifies learning disabled pupils
4. Identifies objectives related to students' needs

Planning Activities

5. Applies diagnostic information
6. Selects appropriate objectives
7. Sequences activities around goals
8. Involves students in planning

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9. Selects materials
10. Includes resource personnel in planning
11. Minimizes discipline problems through learning activities
12. Selects criteria

Conducting Instruction

13. Involves students
14. Understands students' language/dialect
15. Uses a variety of communications patterns
16. Individualizes activities
17. Is aware of students' needs and feelings
18. Reacts with sensitivity to children's needs and feelings
19. Demonstrates transfer of knowledge
20. Accommodates learning disabled students
21. Team-teaches

Management of the Environment and Resources

22. Strengthens self-concept and social skills
23. Facilitates curricular goals
24. Establishes procedures and routines
25. Copes with individual differences
26. Copes with learning disabled students
27. Copes with maladaptive behavior
28. Uses behavior management techniques

Evaluating Instruction

29. Assesses pupil progress
30. Considers extenuating factors in assessment
31. Selects and/or constructs evaluation measures
32. Analyzes student interaction
33. Solicits pupil feedback

Evaluating Self

34. Determines teaching effectiveness
35. Analyzes own interaction with students
36. Solicits students' and peers' perceptions of own behavior
37. Uses solicited perceptions to improve one's coping behavior

II. Collaborating

Working in School/Community Context

38. Involves parents in instruction
39. Plans with parents for instruction
40. Communicates with parents
41. Solicits parental information about home environment
42. Facilitates reinforcement of school learning at home

Working with Auxiliary Personnel (Teacher Aides, Volunteer Parents, Special Education)

43. Interacts with instructional support personnel
44. Works with auxiliary personnel throughout the teaching act
45. Provides basic skills in instruction for teacher aides and parents

Readiness for Inservice Education

Preparing Teachers for Needs Assessment

Expanding teacher awareness of teacher role behaviors and skills

Once the role of the teacher has been fully described, it must be communicated to the teachers who will be the targets of the training programs. It is important to assure, once again, that everyone is operating from the same common frame of reference. For example, when talking about assessing and diagnosing in the teaching act, one needs to be confident that everyone is talking about the same thing. The Allison steering committee approached this problem by dividing the process into two basic parts. The first part was designed to introduce the overall role of the teacher. The second part presented each of the eight competency categories to the faculty in order to more fully explain the various skill areas within each category.

For Part One, the committee decided to have the Teacher Corps facilitate two workshops for half of the faculty the first day and the other half the second day. Hence, the workshops were identical. The morning's activities dealt with Part One, while the afternoon began the step-by-step process of Part Two.

The morning was divided into three activities designed to expand awareness of teaching and systems approaches to problem-solving. The first activity was a "synectics" exercise as explained in Bruce Joyce's *Models of Teaching*, (Joyce, Weil, 1972).

Synectics is a teaching technique with the following characteristics:

1. It enhances creative thinking in individuals.

2. It is a connection-making process used with adults and children in problem solving situations.

3. It involves the use of metaphors drawn from analogy or comparison.

4. It is a way to help connect ideas from familiar content with new content or to view familiar content from a new perspective.

5. It is supposed to "break set" in our thinking.

There are three types of metaphors: direct analogy, personal analogy, and compressed conflict. a *direct analogy* is a way of making connections and comparisons between ideas, people, things, or problems. For example, "a classroom is like what plant?"; "describe the plant"; "what does it look like after a rain"; "what else can you tell us about the plant?" A *personal analogy* is individual identification with a problem. It involves subjective comparison or identification with a person, plant, animal, or non-living things for the purpose of comparison, e.g., how do you look?; how do you feel?; what are you doing? *Compressed conflict* is a two-word description. The words seem to be opposites or contradict each other and at the same time can be used to describe an object, person, place, or situation. Compressed conflicts help in developing insight because the contradiction provides dimensions not easily described from other activities. For example, a clown is funny and sad. A clown is funny because ________________ ; a clown is sad because ________________ . Some other examples are: What can you think of that is angry and helpful at the same time? Can you think of anything that hurts but also feels good?

Abstract ideas or concepts like teaching are difficult to internalize because we cannot see them in the same way we can see a table or a building, yet we frequently use them in our language. The following steps "walk through" a typical synectics exercise for teaching.

Phase I. What is a teacher? Ask for one word descriptions or very brief statements. Record them on newsprint or blackboard.

Phase II. Direct analogy — the task is to try and find out more about teachers through the use of different kinds of comparisons, e.g., a teacher is like what machine? Record responses and ask when considered appropriate *why* a teacher is like a certain machine. What does it look like; what does it do?

Phase III: Personal analogy — from the list select one machine that the group feels best describes their perceptions of a teacher. Ask the group to pretend that they are that machine. Ask for one work descriptions or brief statements and record them. "How do you look?" "How do you feel?" Develop a list of responses.

Phase IV: Compressed conflict — pick two words from the list that are opposites of each other or seem to fight each other. Record the words.

Phase V: New direct analogy — ask participants to make a direct analogy for which these two words are a good description. For instance, if the two words chosen are "powerful" and "abuses", give the names of some things that are both powerful and abused. Select one and describe your selection by using these two words in a paragraph, a short story, a poem, etc.

Phase VI: Ask the group to examine the original task: teachers. Use everything they wrote about in their last direct analogy to write about teachers. Ask them to make this your longest and best story.

This exercise should take about thirty to forty-five minutes and is most effective in small groups of seven to ten members plus a facilitator. Groups should share their stories afterwards.

The second activity of the morning asked the small groups to undertake the task of planning a trip — what would you need to do, what would you need to have a plan and implement a successful vacation trip? Each group spent approximately one-half hour mapping out their steps. After sharing results with each other, a facilitator debriefed the group by suggesting categories for the various types of planning and implementing steps, such as goal statement, resources, plan of action, and evaluation of results.

With this framework in mind the groups were given the task of planning a spelling lesson with the systems approach. Upon sharing their efforts, it was found that most groups had come up with most of the steps that were included in the first five competency categories which were presented earlier — assessing and diagnosing, planning activities, conducting instruction, management of the environment and resources, and evaluating instruction.

At this time, the eight competency categories and list of forty-five teacher competencies were presented to the total group, ending Part One of the planning process.

For the afternoon, two consultants presented short, general awareness workshops to familiarize participants with the first competency category — assessing and diagnosing.

It was originally planned that the other seven categories would be presented in much the same way — short workshops conducted by outside consultants, presenting information primarily through a lecture-type format. This is one of those ideas which did not work very well as teachers expressed the desire for varied formats of presentation. Hence, the next three categories — planning, conducting, and managing — had consultants lead brainstorming sessions with groups of teachers, who gave their own ideas of what should belong in the various categories as well as the skills and abilities derived from the categories. The final four categories were presented via learning packets which included readings and questionnaires related to evaluating instruction, evaluating self, working in the school/community, and with auxiliary personnel. Each individual school will probably conceive its own ways of presenting the categories and their companion competencies. The important lessons to be learned from the Allison experience are as follows:

1. The format of presentation should be varied.
2. Too much should not be presented at one time.

3. Teachers should understand that the purpose of these programs etc. is not to give them skills; but to provide them with awareness for future skills workshops.

Measuring What Happens

The workshop process was monitored by two types of planning worksheets which are included in the companion packet to this handbook. Planning elements (e.g., materials, facilities, and pacing) and group observations (e.g., problems with norms, leadership style, and group decision-making) were noted by an observer who was independent of the program implementation process. Feedback for specific problem areas was provided to staff throughout the workshop process, thus allowing for "fine-tuning" as the day's activities progressed.

The independence/externality of the observer is important. His participation in planning and adjusting is appropriate, but non-involvement in the actual conduct of exercises is vital to assure objective, valid feedback to facilitators. Planning for breaks in the program sequence for staff debriefing and consultation with the observer helps identify emerging problems to adjust the process as it unfolds.

At the conclusion of a workshop's activities, a standard evaluation form was distributed to participants. Suggestions for future workshop topics, maintenance of participants, pacing, and the like can be compiled from these forms.

The final step in data collection involved asking teachers whether they would be interested in following up their workshop experiences. A short survey was administered for this purpose. On the basis of these survey results a variety of follow-up activities can be developed to maintain participant interest. Providing follow-up activities to inservice training is a good idea under most circumstances because it makes professional development an ongoing process and perpetuates teacher interest. During the readiness part of planning for inservice, it must be emphasized that the follow-up activities, like the workshop itself, are not designed to meet teacher needs *per se*. Rather, they are meant to provide overviews of skill areas and to keep teacher commitment to the needs assessment process at a high level.

Some of the follow-up activities which were designed after the awareness workshop on assessing and diagnosing included a small group seminar discussion and a session with a university professor on observational methods of assessment. Another follow-up option was arranged with the principal to give teachers the opportunity to observe another class. The terms of these observation periods were as follows:

> The teacher requesting the opportunity to observe another teacher will approach the teacher he/she wants to observe to obtain permission. After deciding on a time and date collaboratively, the principal is to be advised at least two days in advance so that release

> time can be arranged. The observation should involve a minimum of one hour and a maximum of two hours. If the observation is to occur at another school, the maximum time will be extended to three hours. It will be up to the teacher involved to also coordinate this with the other school's principal and to inform Allison's principal as to the name of the teacher, the school, the specific purpose of the observation, and the time block (8:00-11:00 or 9:00-12:00, etc.) to be utilized.

The "teaming" workshop took place well before the submission of the Cycle XI proposal. However, it would be feasible to schedule such an activity during the first month of the school year. The readiness activities took place, for the most part, during the remainder of the fall semester. By the time of the Christmas mid-term break, all of the competency categories had been presented to teachers in one format or another.

Identification of Teacher Inservice Training Needs

Methods for Assessing Needs

Now that all of the teachers have a common frame of reference for talking about the role of the teacher, they are prepared to participate in activities designed to assess what their professional training needs.

The next step in conceptualizing the teacher's role examines each of the 45 competencies in more detail. Whether a teacher is able to completely fulfill a given competency can be determined by the degree to which certain behaviors can be performed. These *component behaviors* can be thought of as operational definitions of each competency.

Two methods will be presented for *needs assessment*. One will be *subjective*. In this method, the teacher judges self-proficiency relative to each of the competencies. In the *objective* method, someone who is expert in assessment judges the teacher's proficiency. For both methods, it is first necessary for the teacher to indicate *how important* each competency is in regard to classroom performance. This *prioritization* helps to determine the most pressing training needs after the teacher's proficiency is judged, whether by the subjective or the objective method.

Subjective Needs Assessment

The data collection process itself is designed to produce manageable data in a simplified format. In small groups, teachers are asked to indicate what they need, how proficient they would like to become, and how critical these needs are in relation to other aspects of their job. Simple ranking of priority and Likert-type scale estimates of proficiency provide adequate information about the training needs and priorities of the teachers.

Method

Participants

The participants involved in the needs assessment process were the regular classroom teachers at Allison School plus all special teachers, including resources, art, and P.E. teachers, counselors, and librarian. Background descriptive information was obtained by means of a Biographical Data Sheet. Data were collected in small groups of four or five teachers each; the largest group was that of special teachers — seven in all.

Instrumentation

Biographical Data Sheet. A wide range of information about the teachers will need to be considered for program development. The data sheet contains such items as educational background, number of years of teaching experience, and career goals.

Importance Inventory. The purpose of administering this instrument is to determine the priority assigned to each category and behavior by the individual respondents. Teachers are requested to generate two sets of rankings — (1) one of the eight skill categories and (2) one of the behaviors within each of the categories.

Needs Inventory. The Needs Inventory consists of a set of rating scales by which each teacher indicated (1) their level of performance for each of the behaviors in the eight skill categories and (2) the setting in which they engage in that given behavior.

Profile Sheet. The data collected with the Needs Inventory are compiled according to areas of strength and areas of need for each teacher and reported on this data sheet.

Procedure

The data collection process should be handled in small groups of five to seven teachers each. It takes about two hours to complete.

Review. The first activity on the day of the needs assessment was to review the role of the teacher. Information supplements containing detailed descriptions of each competency category were then distributed to all teachers and discussed. Biographical Data Sheets were distributed, with instructions to complete and return the forms.

Prioritization. Copies of the Importance Inventory were distributed to teachers, and they were instructed to complete and return the forms. The information supplement served to clarify any questions regarding the component behaviors of each competency.

Self-assessment of needs. Copies of the Needs Inventory were distributed to teachers, and they were instructed to complete and return the forms.

Performance Level Consensus. Each group was given approximately 20 minutes to discuss his prioritizations and needs in the context of the level of proficiency needed to perform at a satisfactory level. Copies of the seven-point rating scale from the Needs Inventory were made available to each group.

Throughout the data collection process, teachers were encouraged to consult each other and staff members. Each group engaged in discussions concerning a sharing of how the component behaviors were interpreted.

Results

The data provide several sources of information:

1. Areas of need: skills which need to be more fully developed (ratings of 1-3).
2. Areas of strength: resources within the faculty (ratings of 6 and 7).
3. Areas of most immediate need: skill areas of need which are rated as being very important for high priority program planning.
4. Contexts of performance: the setting in which the behavior occurs to give direction as to the appropriate type of inservice intervention — small group simulation, total classroom perspective, etc.
5. Areas of similar need: broad categories of need to be determined according to such dimensions as grade level, subject matter area, or generic competency category.

Objective Needs Assessment

This method of assessing teacher needs is much more complicated than the subjective method. It is an experimental method which avoids the problem of relying on data from teachers who are not able to accurately judge their own proficiency. It could be used to validate the data collected by the subjective method which seemed inaccurate based on a principal's personal knowledge of a particular teacher's skills.

The rather lengthy chart — "Measuring the Component Behaviors" — offers objective "tests" of performance for each component behavior. In the parentheses which follow each instrument is the location of that item in the objective test battery described below.

1. Teacher Questionnaire (TQ): test items, survey items, attitudinal items.
2. "Standing" Checklists:
    a. Lesson Plans (LP)
    b. Classroom Records (CR)

3. Observational Checklists:
    a. Pre-observation Checklist of Classroom Environment (Pre-Ob)
    b. Checklist for Total Class Activity/Discussion (Ob-tot)
    c. Checklist for Small Group/Individualized Activities (Ob-ind)
    d. Post-observation Conference Checklist (Post-ob)
    e. Notation Form for Special Events (SE)

The procedure for collecting data sith these instruments would operate according to the following schedule:

1. Administer questionnaire.
2. Pre-observation conference to review "standing" checklists.
3. Pre-observation survey of classroom environment.
4. Observation #1: small group/individualized activities.
5. Observation #2: total class activity/discussion.
6. Post-observation conference.
7. Other measures as scheduled: special events, simulation exercises.

As mentioned earlier, it would be necessary to consider the data taken from the Importance Inventory to interpret the data collected by the objective instrumentation.

Training Tracks

As can be imagined, both of these needs assessment methods generate large amounts of data. Before taking these data to launch an inservice program, it is necessary to go through one last step to get the data into a manageable form.

Although the role of the teacher breaks into eight major categories, these categories need to be re-arranged somewhat to arrive at focused curricula or *tracks* for training purposes. These training tracks are listed below along with the subject matter areas they encompass. The competencies which fall into each track are listed in parentheses.

1. Bilingualism/Biculturalism; language dominance, dialect, culture. (1, 14)
2. Learning Disabilities (Mainstreaming): identifying, accommodating, coping. (3, 20, 26)
3. Reading: assessing needs, selecting materials, individualizing activities, transferring knowledge, selecting and/or constructing evaluation measures. (2, 9, 16, 19, 31)

4. Language Arts: assessing needs, selecting materials, individualizing activities, transferring knowledge, selecting and/or contructing evaluation measures. (2, 9, 16, 19, 30)
5. Science: assessing needs, selecting materials, individualizing activities, transferring knowledge, selecting and/or constructing evaluation measures. (2, 9, 16, 19, 31)
6. Math: assessing needs, selecting materials, individualizing activities, transferring knowledge, selecting and/or constructing evaluation measures. (2, 9, 16, 19, 31)
7. Social Studies: assessing needs, selecting materials, individualizing activities, transferring knowledge, selecting and/or constructing evaluation measures. (2, 9, 16, 19, 31)
8. Instructional Objectives: identifying and selecting with diagnostic information, sequencing activities, selecting criteria, assessing performance (selecting and/or constructing measures — considering extenuating factors.) (4, 5, 6, 7, 12, 29, 30)
9. Interpersonal/Human Relations/Communications Skills: involving students, analyzing interaction and communications patterns, awareness of and reaction to needs and feelings, self-concept and social skills, soliciting and using feedback. (8, 13, 15, 17, 18, 22, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37)
10. Behavior Management and Discipline: structuring learning activities, facilitating curricular goals, establishing procedures and routines, coping (with individual differences, maladaptive behavior), behavior management techniques. (11, 23, 24, 25, 27, 28)
11. Working with Parents: involving parents in instruction through planning, soliciting information, facilitating learning at home (38, 39, 40, 41, 42)
12. Working with Resource Personnel: team-teaching, roles and services of the special teacher. (10, 21, 43, 44, 45)

Operationalizing School-Based Teacher Inservice Programs

Teacher Management, Implementation, and Evaluation

When the needs assessment of the Allison faculty was completed, three of the 12 tracks were selected by teachers as those areas in which they felt they had the most immediate needs. The three tracks that surfaced were Science, Learning Disabilities, and Interpersonal/Human/Relations/Communications Skills (renamed Teacher-Student Interaction). How the three tracks operated during the following semester can be looked at as a type of "case study" on how such a program could be run at the local school level.

Teacher Corps gave each track a budget of $800 to be spent in any way the group decided — such as consultants, instructors, or materials. Each track was responsible for directing it's own training experiences; this included finding a consultant (usually but not always a person from the university), negotiating for meeting times with the principal, and purchasing materials, if needed.

Teacher-Student Interaction Track

The Teacher-Student Interaction track had the largest membership of the three tracks — about fifteen teachers. The consultant chosen by the track members was a Child Psychiatric administrator for the state who provided a six-week training course in self-management and dealing with feelings and moods. Sessions met weekly for approximately two hours after school. The attendance at these sessions was fairly good, especially since they were being held on "tired time". Often members of other tracks would sit in on sessions to hear the consultant's presentations.

Science Track

Although the Science track was the smallest in membership, it turned out to be the most productive, securing the services of a university educator and setting as its goal the development of a curriculum to provide continuity in science teaching between grade levels. To that end, they negotiated meeting times during a few school days, observed science demonstrations at other schools on "inservice" days, and acquired materials for use at the school. More than the other two tracks, Science was a "hands-on" learning experience for the teachers.

Learning Disabilities Track

Of the three tracks, Learning Disabilities had the most difficulty getting going. A fundamental problem for the group was trying to reconcile perceived disparities of training needs (although all members had requested membership in the track based on their needs assessment data). It also appeared that some members were looking for training to help them cope with mainstreaming problems, while other members were looking for a consultant who would take the problems out of their hands. Three different consultants worked with the group during the semester. One offered feelings and opinions about dealing with learning disabilities, advising track members to become completely knowledgeable in all subject matter areas as the most beneficial coping strategy for learning disabilities. The second consultant made four trips to observe in track members' classrooms and make suggestions about specific students and situations. The third consultant was the psychologist who was concurrently working with the

Teacher-Student Interaction track. She provided the track with a three-week training course which took place late in the semester.

To check on the effectiveness of the training activities, an Inservice Evaluation Checklist was developed for administration to members of the various tracks. It provided information on the applicability of the training, the effectiveness of the instructor, the utility of the training, the teacher's commitment to participating in the program, and the teacher's awareness of the training as fitting a competency-based format.

By virtue of the competency-based, needs-focused design of the inservice program at Allison, any workshop/intervention offered for the teachers will have a set of "given" subject matter areas and terminal/outcome behaviors which are to be addressed by the instructor. Hence, of the six elements of a competency-based intervention — target populations(s), terminal behavior(s), method(s) of instruction, method(s) of measurement, time(s) of measurement, and criteria for measurement — most are either explicitly or implicitly predetermined before solicitation of resource personnel. Target population will, of course, be the teachers who showed weakness in a particular area through the needs assessment process. Terminal behaviors, then are those component behaviors associated with the competency in which need was shown to exist. Methods of instruction can be planned by whatever resource personnel are secured. Issues of measurement to assure that teachers have successfully acquired the component behaviors are essentially the responsibility of the inservice instructor. However, methods and criteria have been implied through the development of the performance profile instrumentation which appears in the objective needs assessment section. Times for measuring teachers' levels of performance would be determined by the instructor, but pre-workshop, post-workshop, and follow-up measurement after the teacher has had an opportunity to test new skills in the classroom would appear to be indicated.

It would appear, though, that the only way to get this model of measurement and instruction off the ground is to completely familiarize the resource instructors/consultants in the 45 competencies and what the track expects in terms of acquiring new skills. This would require laying a lot of groundwork before training could actually begin. The payoffs in being sure that time and money have been well spent are worth the extra effort.

What are some of the lessons learned for managing and operating an inservice program?

1. Someone *on site* must assume the leadership for coordinating the whole program. In our case, it was the clinical professor for inservice education. For other schools, the principal or vice-principal could fill this role.

2. A track will probably function better if an outside consultant can be secured to give the group some direction. It's probably too much to ask a

regular classroom teacher to assume that responsibility, given everything else which already conspires to fill every minute of their day.

3. Although it is sometimes difficult to negotiate, time during the school day for either individual, small group, or total track activities, should be secured whenever possible. The use of teacher aides, student teachers, Teacher Corps interns, and volunteer parents, as well as teachers who team together, can facilitate this.

4. "Tired time" is pretty undesirable for meeting times. It's difficult to find much motivation after a full day of teaching.

5. Be creative. One doesn't have to stick with lecture-type workshops. Individual consultation, observation in other teachers' classrooms, individual projects, and group projects (such as building a science learning center) are all viable approaches to inservice education.

6. All members of the track should have approximately the same goals for training. That is one factor which thwarted the Learning Disabilities track.

7. It must be remembered that some teachers may have needs in classroom planning which make it especially difficult to plan their own inservice curriculum. Program leadership should help out here.

There are other lessons, to be sure. One last idea which was generated out of Allison's experiences was the designation of one day per week as a staff development day. This would involve a district-wide policy decision, but it should be explored. Instructional time with the children could be more concentrated during the other four days with the fifth day being devoted to social-emotional development activities led by volunteer parents, teacher aides, and the like. This would give a definitely more professional climate for staff development as well as legitimizing it in the eyes of both teachers and community.

There are several possible "variations on the theme." The faculty can be divided in half so that on one staff development day half the faculty is involved in inservice while the other half supervises the children. The next week, roles would be reversed. If one day sounds like too much, one afternoon or one morning per week can be devoted to staff development.

This discussion is to emphasize the importance of continuing, meaningful inservice training which has enough status in the eyes of administrators to be built into the school schedule. But these are old battles, ones which have been fought for many years. The influence of individual schools, adopting school-based inservice programs with the support of their school districts, can go a long way towards turning the tide of inservice training for teachers. We hope that this documentation has helped to further that end.

CHAPTER 2

The major influences of the training complex were experienced through the participants themselves.

In this chapter, Dr. Doris Parrish (the director of the Texas Southern Teacher Corps project), Mr. Ronald B. Johnson, and Mrs. Birdia Churchwell describe the impact of the project's inservice program on the professional development of mathematics and science teachers. The project and inservice model are generalizable to other institutions and individuals responsible for staff and inservice development.

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AN INSERVICE MODEL FOR MATHEMATICS/SCIENCE TEACHERS

by

Doris Curry Parrish
Ronald B. Johnson
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Introduction

In keeping with the mission of Texas Southern University to serve as a "special purpose institution for urban programming" and in response to the severe need for competent science and mathematics teachers in the Houston Independent School District, Teacher Corps/Peace Corps sought to develop a quality inservice model.

The content or instructional phase of the model was planned to incorporate effective strategies and techniques but also to provide for and elicit the interaction of teacher/professor, university and school district in order to derive optimum sharing. This feedback or sharing system provided a product comprised of findings from consumers as well as producers of practical curriculum models for teacher training. The participants or recipients of the model represented all levels of science and mathematics instructors and all areas of science and mathematics taught in the district.

The actualization and implementation of the model was further realized when Texas Southern University (TSU) and Houston Independent School District (HISD) collaboratively developed and received funding for the training complex thrust of Teacher Corps and the international thrust of action of the Peace Corps. Therefore, the project, Teacher Corps/Peace Corps (TC/PC) based the objectives of the model on needs indicated by a comprehensive HISD survey, on requests from West African countries for Peace Corps mathematics and science teachers, and on input from previous groups of TC/PC interns (statistics indicate that 90% of those who had completed the African teaching experience chose the field of education for employment).

Description of the Project

The project comprises an instructional design with a dichotomous block serving both mathematics and science teachers. Training included experienced, inexperienced, and prospective teachers. These prospective teachers included ten interns who were recruited for a one-year Teacher Corps program and a two-year Peace Corps program. A second group of degree holding interns was recruited for the second year of Teacher Corps and for the same type of Peace Corps program as the first group.

Teacher Corps Phase

Interns worked in Jack Yates High School, an inner city school in Houston, Texas, from 7:30 a.m. until 11:30 a.m., as intern teachers under the leadership of a master teacher, the Team Leader. Interns, who were placed with competent cooperating teachers, assumed the full teaching responsibility after three months of participatory observation and generic skill building, including microteaching, classroom management, module development, and planning. The university course work led to an M.Ed.in Secondary Education with specialization in mathematics, chemistry, or biology and also led to Texas Teaching Certification at the end of the first year of the program.

The interns performed ten hours of weekly volunteer work in the community, identifying and responding to specific needs which the project could address. Some 50 residents completed the General Education Development (GED) program and all were eligible for employment in HISD as teacher aides in the content area of mathematics and science. Additionally, GED graduates developed skills to attain advanced job placement in government, industry, and business.

Peace Corps Phase

Interns' credentials must be acceptable to the legal, medical, and educational departments of Peace Corps. Interns were not forced to accept the Peace Corps phase of the project, nor were degree programs set which were intended to penalize interns who refused the West African experience. Possibly due to the concerns of all participants, interns, without exception, accepted their Peace Corps invitations. It was felt that this 100% effort was a first and must in some way have been attributed to the inservice focus of Teacher Corps. Interns became volunteer teachers in Sierra Leone and Ghana where they taught at the secondary or college level, conducted workshops on teaching strategies and methodology, executed community volunteer services, and completed the Masters Degree requirements. Adjunct professors at Fourah Bay College in Freetown, Sierra Leone, and the University of Science and Technology at Kumasi, Ghana were contracted for the 6 hours of education, history, and science/mathematics needed for completion of the 3 year program.

The Model

Approach and Implementation

HISD conducted a comprehensive needs assessment. The following needs related to this model:

1. Stronger emphasis on instruction in basic skills.
   a) strengthening the basic skills program for boys and girls

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through additional instructional materials, guides, diagnostic testing, and well-trained instructional specialists.
   b) provisions for consistent and continuous inservice training for teachers, specialists, and teacher aides.
   c) expansion of the Teacher (Staff) Development Center.
   d) establishment of two mathematics resource centers.
   e) organization of a mathematics laboratory in each elementary, junior, and senior high school.

2. Provisions for improving the competencies of the staff through
   a) a sound, continuing program of staff development and inservice training.
   b) the operation of a center for staff development which will provide inservice training for student teachers, teachers, instructional specialists, counselors, administrators, teacher aides, and clerks.

3. Maintaining and improving existing programs for District pupils in terms of cost and benefit effectiveness, mainly by the reallocation of existing funds. Special emphasis should be placed on
   a) early diagnosis of learning difficulties through tests and observations.
   b) programs for the severely handicapped.
   c) bilingual programs.
   d) individualization of instruction in all subjects at all levels.

4. Promotion of parent and community involvement in the daily working of the school.

This TC/PC project facilitated the implementation of the following aspects of the HISD strategy to upgrade the educational program of low income children:

1. Early diagnosis of learning difficulties by identification of the educational needs of children through tests and observations.
2. Certification of a significant number of Earth Science teachers.
3. University registration in order to yield renewal and enhancement of content skills, new methodology, and innovative developmental practices.
4. Training for regular teachers to deal effectively with the mandates of Public Law 94-142, i.e., training for all students in the least restrictive environment.
5. Training for teacher aides and paraprofessionals in order that they obtain skills in typing, business machines, audio visual equipment usage, and content of mathematics/science courses.

6. Individualization of instruction through the publication of new curriculum guides in mathematics and science to help individualize instruction. Development of clearly-written, well-defined behavioral objectives for mathematics and science. Dissemination of these materials to teachers in other schools to help them plan for special needs of all children.
7. Expansion of inservice training opportunities for teacher aides in science and mathematics and the development of a staff training model to be used in strengthening instruction and providing a continuous retraining program for mathematics and science teachers and aides.
8. Establishment of additional mathematics resource centers.
9. Preparation of a model for use in the systematic evaluation of math/science curricula.
10. Expansion of the cooperative relationship between TSU and HISD to provide for continuous university courses for the training of HISD staff.
11. Encouragement of continuous community input for the identification of priority concerns through organized community groups.
12. Expansion in the process of individualizing instruction in mathematics/science by the training of more teacher aides for service in these fields.

The target population was a selected number of inservice teachers who needed to complete requirements for certification in science or mathematics or who needed to upgrade their skills in these subject areas; interns with less than twelve credit hours in education; teacher aides who needed to upgrade or learn skills generic to mathematics and science classrooms; and a group of experienced master teachers who could provide valid input from experience and testing of the model as well as exert influence in their school buildings.

The elements of the program for preservice and inservice teachers were integrated in the instructional aspect of the project as both the interns and the inservice teachers were enrolled in similar courses. This approach maximized the interpenetration of ideas and the sharing of experiences between the experienced and inexperienced participants. The training design fostered the multicultural approach in staffing and in program implementation.

Teaching teams formed the nucleus around which teaching strategies were developed and implemented in the schools. Substantial spinoff and multiplier effects were realized by the procedure of training key teachers to serve as trainers for other teachers and teacher aides.

The delivery system for the training complex consisted of field-based instruction provided by a TSU faculty member and an HISD teacher for each course offered. Each participant was allowed to achieve at his own rate, and criterion referenced evaluation techniques were utilized.

The major influences of the training complex were experienced through the participants themselves. Once the participants received the training, they were responsible for conducting inservice workshops to train others in the HISD Mini University, while others provided a meaningful and valid impetus for change and improved instruction in their buildings.

Components of the Inservice Program

A certified mathematics and science teacher who held the Master's Degree was the Team Leader for the interns and the foundation of the inservice program. The Team Leader's familiarity with HISD and TSU provided them with the necessary contacts, leads, procedures, and public relations necessary to obtain desirable participants.

Certified teachers from 33 inner city schools were recruited to enroll in graduate courses, some of which were with interns. These classes were taught at TSU and Yates (only 2 blocks apart). Teachers had ready access to the library, learning resource labs, and other facilities of both institutions. University professors were readily accessible to HISD teachers and interns in the target school. Each course provided three contact hours per week, and teachers were able to obtain six semester hours of graduate credit per semester. The basic content included diagnostic prescriptive teaching, learning theories, teaching of the various sciences and mathematics, human growth and development, and pure and interdisciplinary curriculum module preparation.

A substantial amount of time was devoted to preparing students to serve as teacher trainers during the second semester. The teachers who were retrained during the first semester were used to provide short term intensive retraining renewal courses for approximately fifty science and mathematics teachers from other schools during the second semester of the first year. During the second year, an additional 200 mathematics and science teachers received similar training. During the 1976-1977 school year, fourteen teachers were certified; five received the Master's degree; thirty-two continued their training in this inservice model; and forty-six teacher aides received training.

A broad program was implemented to involve parents and other community persons in activities that established a greater degree of communication and interrelated involvements among the community, university, and public schools. Programs also were initiated to provide community persons with more information about community service agencies.

The training design fostered the multicultural approach in staffing and implementation. The multicultural aspect of the inservice program was enhanced by the internation education component afforded through the

Peace Corps phase of Teacher Corps/Peace Corps. During the second semester and intervening summer, interns received instruction in cross-cultural education, comparative education, and language training. This instruction prepared the intern psychologically and educationally to adjust to the life, culture, and educational system of the host country prior to his Peace Corps assignment. Upon arriving in the host country, a series of Peace Corps sponsored in-country training activities oriented interns to the host country and facilitated further adjustment to local conditions.

Because of the upgrading of the competencies of inservice teachers in subject matter knowledge and teaching methodology, students in the local schools gained better knowledge of mathematics and science. The retrained teachers utilized modules prepared, tested, and refined in the Training Complex to teach basic mathematical and scientific concepts to their pupils. Teaching strategies were enhanced by the knowledge gained by the retrained teacher relative to diagnostic/prescriptive techniques, motivational strategies, learning behavior, and socio-psychological relationships.

During the first year, at least 350 pupils directly benefited through the upgrading of instruction in mathematics and science in their classes. By the end of the second year, at least 5,000 will have benefited.

Retraining/Renewal Through the Multiplier Effect

Certified teachers retrained during the first semester taught HISD teachers of science and mathematics. These teachers received up to six hours of instruction per week in seminar sessions. Techniques of individualization to overcome impediments to the learning of science and mathematics were emphasized, along with relevant information about basic concepts of mathematics and science. Evaluation of gains and behavioral adjustments in relation to diagnostic/prescriptive procedures were continuous.

HISD Staff Development Center, TC/PC, community volunteers, and returning Peace Corps volunteers worked collaboratively to develop a model which could be delivered to the greatest cross section of teachers and paraprofessionals.

Incentives for Inservice Attendants

In addition to intrinsic rewards, it was felt that some extrinsic rewards would be desirable if the program was to be successful. Some of the incentives were as follows:

1. Reduction and/or abolishment of various fees at TSU.
2. Course offerings to teachers who had been given a deadline date August 31, 1977, for obtaining the required Earth Science courses.
3. Hourly wages paid by HISD for teaching in the Mini University.
4. Use of equipment and resources of TC/PC and the HISD Staff Development Center.

5. Travel to workshops in Texas and in Washington, D.C.
6. Wages paid by Teacher Corps for participation in the Pilot Teachers Workshops in Austin, Texas.
7. Content concepts explained and demonstrated through dance, drama, music, pantomime, and dialectics.
8. Seminars and workshops conducted in an open atmosphere of movies, refreshments, and after-party chats.
9. Opportunities to discuss individual concerns with university professors on a one-to-one ratio.
10. A stipend training program for paraprofessionals who completed the practical skills development courses.
11. Interdisciplinary activities between mathematics, chemistry, and biology teachers.
12. Registration of participants by TC/PC staff.
13. Continuing education units provided by HISD.

It was assumed that many teachers preferred non-attendance to university work because of the inconveniences of travel, parking, transcripts, and paperwork.

The university courses were planned and structured to respond to specific needs of teachers for certification, renewal, enhancement, and graduate credit. Examples are Geology and Texas Government for certification, topics in Mathematics or Chemistry or Biology for renewal purposes, the teaching of science or mathematics for enhancement, and learning theory for graduate credit.

The inservice model implemented by TC/PC has provided many benefits, outstanding of which was the institutionalization of a Composite Science Certification program.

Interfacing with Other Agencies

Experienced teachers who have shown meritable degrees of success, growth, and responsive adaptation to varying student abilities shared a vital role as resources in the implementation of any Teacher Education program. The university and inexperienced teachers gained practical data on sample classroom situations where the experienced teacher had shown success in differentiation, specialization, and innovation. From this teacher sharing and input, the model is readily adaptable to renewal, reinforcement, and developmental needs.

The development of this model was not a matter of a hodgepodge of courses but derived from identification, needs response, professional development, and a continuously evolving program. Consistent collaboration, data gathering, flexibility, and evaluation were necessary. The university must be ever cautious of teacher needs in structuring courses.

The comparative structuring of available federal programs and interfacing where possible are strongly recommended. In the project, various objectives were being duplicated, and interfacing became advisable with the Elementary and Secondary Educational Act. Various instructional aids were developed and purchased along with the central stocking of supplies, development of modules, and teacher made materials. The resource center served the needs of many teachers and students and remained in existence for all HISD school personnel.

The community component interfaced with Houston Community College and was thereby able to get the free service of one GED teacher, counselors, and materials. Graduation exercises were combined with other centers in Houston. The TC/PC project kept a minimum of fifty-five students and graduated seventy-five.

Any inservice program should be founded on the desires of teachers' felt needs and on the specifications of the district and the state education agency. Additionally, success depends on the inclusion of all publics — community, school and university.

CHAPTER 3

THE INSERVICE EXPERIENCE AT PRAIRIE VIEW A&M UNIVERSITY

by Juanita Carter and William H. Parker

The 11th Cycle Inservice Experience of the Teacher Corps Project at Prairie View A&M University has been largely one of gradual acceptance by teachers and administrators in a school setting where the guiding concepts have been limited by resources and available expertise.

Situated in a rural area northwest of Houston, Waller County is now beginning to be affected by the urban sprawl of the nation's fifth largest city. Both the Waller Independent School District, where Teacher Corps efforts are focused, and the University are facing transitional periods as the time approaches when suburban needs will replace the traditional quiet of the area's immediate rural past. Testifying to its roots, the A&M in Prairie View's official title once spelled "Agricultural & Mechanical" but now the acronym holds on to traditional values while fitting into a more modern role. Prairie View A&M University has been redefined as an institution which is to be responsive to future needs of an urbanized society. From its older role as a preparer of teachers, the redefinition has created a new emphasis on the continuing professional development of educators.

In such a context, Teacher Corps entered a local setting in which teachers and administrators may have been slowly implementing change without a full awareness of their existing competence and often without confidence in the mutual relationships between the teaching staff and administration. Without knowing the jargonized terms for some innovations, the teachers had already been using newer techniques and materials.

Where administrators have tended to retain control of the decisioning process, teachers have had an understandable reluctance to feel they were meaningful partners in the making of decisions. The mandated stress on diagnostic/prescriptive techniques is often only semantic — teachers have been paying heed to individual needs since before the creation of such phrases as Individually Prescribed Instruction and the life.

As the Teacher Corps began to implement its program, a needs assessment was carried out to identify urgent areas for attention in the later application of inservice programs. Planners determined that a critical need was in the area of self-perception.

Perhaps because teachers had not always been involved in the decisioning process, perhaps because they had not received sufficient professional reinforcement or perhaps even for personal reasons, a teacher's "laundry list" of needs indicated that the first inservice efforts would be toward the creation of a positive approach to teaching.

With the aid of a Superintendent's Advisory Council, a plan for the year's efforts was drawn up. The needs assessment which preceded the planning phase asked teachers to respond to their perceptions about the importance of items such as the following:

> Decision-making processes are based on cooperation between all major interest groups...
>
> Decisions are made by the people who are affected...
>
> Explicit procedures exist to assure fairness in decision-making...
>
> Professional growth is seen as a continuum from preservice preparation through career-long professional development.

Respondents to the needs assessment were asked to rate their perceptions about "what is" and "what should be.' for 25 different items (including those above).

Based on the "laundry list" of needs, plans for the year's activities were implemented. One of the most successful inservice programs of the year was a "shot-in-the-arm" approach for the teachers to emphasize the rewards of teaching. Mini-workshops aimed at current topics were stressed to heighten the benefits of involvement and participation.

The first program of the year had been directed toward explanation of new requirements for accomodative education. Follow-ups to that program had re-emphasized the need for enhancement of professional esteem. Teacher Corps project members spent a great deal of time between general sessions in informal meetings with the teaching staff, and reported numerous incidents of "counseling" teachers — the types of interaction which enabled leadership potential to be identified and enlisted in local inservice efforts.

A noticeable handicap of effective inservice programs in settings where there are limited resources is in the beginning dependence on outside consultants and larger neighboring school districts for staff development assistance.

As the Prairie View Teacher Corps effort began to pick up steam and as initial reluctance to teacher preparation began to be eroded, the emerging leadership began to form the nucleus of a local resource "bank" of talent which can be tapped for continuing inservice efforts. The limited resources can be spread even further, since local regulations ensure that professional and personal service is more important than consultant fees. Now, there is a tendency toward local reliance on the talent being developed in the Prairie View Teacher Corps project.

An additional spin-off of the identification of key people is the clear interest on the part of teachers for increased academic work. Since the Teacher Corps project has been progressing off-campus courses have been introduced in the Waller school district to start nearly 15 teachers on their way toward state certification in special education. (Proportionally, that number is about 15% of the school district's teaching staff). It is anticipated that the program will continue through a 12-hour certificate endorsement sequence, and it is likely that an additional source of students for Prairie View's graduate education program will have been uncovered.

A part of the inservice program was to introduce teachers to terminology, systematic approaches to curriculum development and the like. A recommendation from the updating of teachers' professional competence is the recognition that there is a definite need for implementation through example.

The adage about "do as I say, and not as I do," is unfortunately true in many cases. There are compelling reasons to incorporate Teacher Corps objectives into Teacher Corps programs. For instance, an effective way of really getting the message across about diagnostic/prescriptive teaching is to incorporate the technique in inservice programs. At the beginning of a year, or cycle, why not prepare a prescription for the individual teacher's need? A personal profile can be prepared which lists particular objectives, measurable outcomes and even rewards.

It is recommended that Teacher Corps projects, with their relationships to institutions of higher learning, explore and install procedures which can lead not only to academic credit at the graduate level, but also toward the granting of Continuing Education Units (CEU's). With professional involvement, enhancement of self-esteem, the rewards of leadership, participation, and even intangible benefits such as CEU's, it is possible to make inservice training a more painless way of giving each participant something — of meeting some personal or professional needs.

If meeting the individual needs of each child is important — in diagnostic/prescriptive procedures or in accomodative education, why not meet the needs of each staff member to the fullest extent possible?

Initial reluctance often meets an effort to come into a situation from the outside — for the "Ivory Tower" of the university or from an outside agency. The tendency is to be defensive about the outside expert. It is believed that as the Prairie View Teacher Corps project moves toward its fullest maturity, it has been successful in confirming its partnership with the local education agency in striving for educational good.

Again by example, the lesson to be learned is that good leadership techniques must be demonstrated as well as taught. If the personal interactions of the Teacher Corps staff exemplify good leadership qualities, then presentations in more formal sessions will bear more credibility. Tact and diplomacy are effective traits to demonstrate and to teach.

The third inservice session of the cycle year was a "potpourri" of topics which had been indicated by the needs assessment, but missed at other times during the year. Because the plans were, and should be continuously updated, it was seen that an immediate need for updating of information was in the area of handling the disruptive student. Perhaps in testimony to the departure from the quietness of its rural past, to the nearing of Metropolitan Houston, or just to the current American scene, the most popular topic in the Waller inservice sessions was one on drug abuse. Here again, the need is pointed out for an acceptance of reality versus the expectations of the teacher population. It is possible that the expectations might still hold on to a past which never existed compared to the reality of a situation which many do not wish to face.

A hard lesson learned from the inservice cycle deals with the required emphasis on multicultural education. The reality of the situation is that the topic is and perhaps always will be one which cuts directly to the bone of each individual's personal values. Where topics such as "positive values of teaching" or "diagnostic/prescriptive techniques" are prevalent, there is little likelihood that personal values will be threatened. Where there is a topic which touches on personal values and beliefs, there is the extreme possibility that someone will feel threatened. Values clarification rather than group processes on multicultural education may be a less imposing way...individual attention rather than "group therapy" may indeed remove a great deal of threat.

To evaluate the effects of the inservice cycle, forms were administered at the close of each session, asking participants to react to program content, relevance, clarity, methods, preparation of trainers, interest, responsiveness of trainer and group participation. As could be expected, the ratings ranged from very good to less positive feedback, depending on the subject and the inservice trainer. The lesson to be learned is that feedback is critical to improvement, whether the information is soothing to the trainer or not. It can be expected that as the inservice acceptability of Teacher Corps staff continues to improve, key points of preparation, interest and group participation will become more favorable.

This brief summary of the inservice program at the Prairie View A&M Teacher Corps project has listed some of the lessons learned in the recent experience of Corps leaders. Rather than the specification of inservice techniques, it is felt that others may learn best from successful efforts and those which have not been so successful.

Points to remember are that there must be a careful cultivation of good will with local administrators and there must also be a cultivation of acceptance among the teaching staff. Key people must be identified and involved, and there must be an effort to identify the real leaders as well as the imagined ones. In each setting there will be a dual hierarchy of formal and informal leadership, and as in a clique, the real leaders may be the silent workers and not those who noisily imagine themselves to be in control.

The needs of the local situation must be identified and dealt with in a priority fashion based on the availability of talent and resources. The threat to personal values must be carefully handled and removed where possible (as in values clarification). With attention to individual needs (teachers, administrators and students), values clarification can be a more painless way of effecting change than in areas which can appear to force issues.

Ultimately, inservice education must pay attention to "what ought to be" rather than "what is." That umbrella is all-inclusive, and implies that the assessment of needs will give planners an opportunity to examine and seek a path to educational success.

CHAPTER 4

> The trust level between administrators and teachers is an important variable in the effectiveness of inservice and other professional development programs. Teachers must feel free to express their professional needs without being evaluated.

Freiberg and Townsend present a detailed picture of the experience of the Teacher Corps project inservice activities as they were continued through the 11th Cycle. A systematic model of inservice education is described which highlights some of the successes of the Houston program. Collaborative processes and the individualizing of concerns were effective strategies used in the building of the staff development program.

The authors describe the evolution of a clinical inservice model through which the Advisory Board, Management Team and other components were welded into functioning decision making bodies. Freiberg and Townsend outline the specific activities of summer workshops, a district survey which resulted in the identification of topics for mini-sessions and other methods which were implemented in the formulation of staff development plans. According to the authors, "the clinical inservice program is based on the assumption that inservice education should be systematic and non-redundant." Their recommended solution is that individualized inservice education will achieve that goal.

FIELD BASED CLINICAL INSERVICE EDUCATION
A CASE STUDY

by

H. Jerome Freiberg
and
Karan Townsend

Background

This chapter describes a developmental approach to the professional growth of teachers and support personnel in one school from February 1977 to February 1978. This case study has implications for all educators who are actively involved with the inservice, staff development, and the continuing education of teachers and other educators.

The definitions of the terms inservice education, staff development and continuing education developed for this chapter expand on the statements by Harris (1977), Howsam (1976), and others. These definitions provide the framework within which the following discussion should be interpreted.

Definition

Staff Development — Defines the training of all educational personnel (certified and non-certified) by the school district who are part of the operation of a school. This includes teachers, aides, tutors, parent volunteers, secretaries, custodial, administrative, bus drivers, etc. Staff development is usually job and site specific. The skills acquired by the staff may not be generalizable to employment in other school districts.

Inservice Education — Defines the training of certified instructional personnel within a staff development program who are part of the operation of the school. The inservice component is the responsibility of the school district and is usually job and site specific. The skills acquired may be transferred to other job situations depending upon the generic nature of the inservice component.

Formal Continuing Education — The formal continuing education program is usually the responsibility of the individual and includes graduate level courses, certification programs, which would increase the opportunity for job advancement; master's degree programs, and other professional responsibilities (e.g., some states require a specific number of courses to maintain a state certification). Some school districts give financial or release time support to teachers in continuing education programs. The continuing education component is usually delivered by the university and represents the professional strand of a teacher's educational career. The teaching profession has the greatest impact in the area of continuing education. The teacher may readily transfer the skills gained in the continuing education programs to other schools or districts.

Informal Continuing Education — Informal continuing education is the responsibility of the individual and may include reading of books and journals, traveling and attending cultural activities, self-help programs and courses, etc. The informal component helps the professional through the improvement of the self. (Freiberg, 1977).

The need for effective inservice education has been discussed by Edelfelt and Lawrence (1975), MacDonald (1977), Joyce and Showers (1977), Rubin (1976), Freiberg (1974) (1977), and others. Enhancing the instructional effectiveness of teachers will facilitate attainment of high quality education in the schools.

There is a general public concern about the effectiveness of our schools and the teachers within them. A recent Gallup Poll indicates by a 2-1 majority that Americans believe the quality of education is declining (Cawelti, 1977). To some extent, the responsibility for improving the quality of education rests with teacher educators. Preservice teacher educators have the basic task of facilitating the process by which students master broad-based generic competencies (Frieberg, 1977). However, this type of general preservice education represents only one end of a teacher's professional growth continuum. Teacher educators from many agencies, not just universities, must develop inservice education programs which help teachers become more effective and better adapted to their specific situations.

> Professional growth is a continuous process, not only in the [illegible] of the individual professional, but also in the formal provi[illegible] professional growth. Preservice preparation provides a substantial beginning toward a holistic concept of a professional teacher, and inservice education continues development within the framework of that concept. Teaching competence, then, is developed and honed in a constant and conscious effort to make professional improvement a career-long process. (Edelfelt, 1975)

The implication of Edelfelt's comments is that inservice education should have an impact on the quality of school programs for students. The new procedures, skills, attitudes, and curricula emphasized in an inservice program must be adopted in the classroom in order to have an impact (MacDonald, 1977). Joyce and Showers (1977) report that there is evidence which indicates that teachers can learn new teaching skills through inservice education, but they also report that there is evidence to suggest that newly acquired abilities do not transfer back to the classroom. Day-to-day habits and routines which have been previously established by the teacher are continued rather than altered to reflect new knowledge and skills.

The apparent lack of inservice programs which resulted in the application of new skills by teachers in their classrooms led to the development of a field-based clinical inservice program which had its origins in the Providence Free School of Teachers founded by Freiberg in 1972. Freiberg (1974) describes the Free School as an inservice program which:

1. had no grades,
2. clearly let the learner know ahead of time what he would learn,
3. awarded incentive credit,
4. practiced what it preached,
5. encouraged the implementation of educational theories in the classroom,
6. had voluntary participation,
7. was based on the stated needs of the teacher.

Frieberg (1977) further developed the foundations of the model of field based clinical inservice when he described the kind of program that would result from an effective staff development model:

> ...the staff development program must also be open, flexible, multicultural-bilingual and creative. It must have effective formative and summative assessment procedures and must utilize needs assessments and data from teachers, students, parents, community and school district staff, university faculty, and state organizations. The model to bring about effective staff development programs would utilize a discrepancy-analysis procedure in which the goals and objectives established by the different role groups would be evaluated on a continual basis. The staff development model needs to present the teacher with a learning environment which may be duplicated in the teacher's own classroom.

Based on these foundations, the model was expanded through a review of educational and temporary systems literature relevant to inservice education and through an analysis of practical experience with existing inservice programs. Five criteria for effective inservice education were identified. The University of Houston/Houston Independent School District Teacher Corps Project professional development program was developed to meet these criteria which include:

1. Effective inservice education utilizes techniques that are consistent with fundamental principles of effective teaching and learning (i.e., needs-based content, field-based instruction, demonstrations, active learning, practice of skills, and feedback) (Lawrence and others, 1974; Joyce and Showers, 1977; Bush, 1971; and Rubin, 1971).

2. Effective inservice education utilizes a systemic model of program development, implementation, and evaluation (Lawrence and others, 1971; Jeffers and McDaniels, 1975; Smith, 1975; Lippitt and Fox, 1971; and Allen, 19[illegible]1).
3. Effective inservice education utilizes a collaborative decision-making process with a concept of parity among representatives of teachers and others who are involved with the inservice program (Lawrence and others, 1971; Jeffers and McDaniels, 1975; Smith, 1975; Lippitt and Fox, 1971; and Allen, 1971).
4. Effective inservice education takes into account the needs of the student, teacher, and school system, organizational context, and support systems (Lippitt and Fox, 1971; Tyler, 1971; Tikunoff, 1977; Ward, 1977; and Rubin, 1971).
5. Effective inservice education provides extrinsic and intrinsic rewards (Bush, 1971 and Edelfelt; 1977).

Systemic Model

In accordance with the preceding criteria, the professional growth programs designed by the University of Houston/Houston Independent School District 11th Cycle Teacher Corps Project staff (Frieberg, White, Townsend, Daigle, Vigna and Thornhill) are based on a systemic model of inservice education which reflects the grounding of educational theory with practice and experience. The programs are based on the assumption that the use of a systemic approach to professional development increases program effectiveness and improves the possibility of a temporary Teacher Corps system influencing the permanent systems of the university and school district.

The effectiveness of a professional development program requires a smooth entry into the teaching culture of the school. This is a sociological issue, yet teacher educators rarely view inservice programs as sociological problems (Lortie, 1975). The trust level between administrators and teachers is an important variable in the effectiveness of inservice and other professional development programs. Teachers must feel free to express their professional needs without being evaluated.

An example of the importance of trust is the story of the superintendent of schools who asked teachers to complete a questionnaire on their inservice needs. After reviewing the returned questionnaires, he suggested to the school board that those who expressed inservice needs be replaced by more competent teachers.

Although this point of trust seems quite basic, it is often ignored by most designers of inservice programs. One means of developing trust is involvement of teachers in the planning and implementation of individualized development programs (Lawrence, 1975 and Freiberg, 1974).

Individualizing the inservice activities would require a total collaborative planning and decision-making model between universities, school districts and professional organizations. Many believe collaboration is important during the planning phase of a program and at all points throughout the development, implementation, and evaluation phases at which major decisions must be made (Edelfelt and Lawrence, 1975; Jeffers and McDaniels, 1975; Smith, 1975; Allen, 1975). According to these educators, a program should be structured in such a way that it is sensitive to continual inputs from teachers, university professors, the community, and others and is modified in accordance with the input from these groups. The program should be subjected to formative and summative feedback and evaluation because these processes help keep a program flexible and responsive.

An example of a collaborative process and product resulted from a summer workshop in Houston, Texas. The teachers at Roosevelt Elementary School described the type of inservice programs Teacher Corps should offer. The following statements were developed by three groups of 15 teachers and administrators. A consensus method was used to generate the statements.

GROUP ONE — We agree Teacher Corps inservice education should promote cooperation and cohesiveness among building staff. It should provide teachers with methods which are creative, motivating, diversified and resourceful in order to better reach all students at the levels where they are.

GROUP TWO — We agree the Teacher Corps inservice education should be planned program designed around the needs identified by the participants including the administrators, teachers, aides, parents, substitutes, university staff, clerks, etc.; flexible enough to allow informal ice-breaking activities prior to actual presentation of planned inservice, based on well defined goals and objectives that are understood by all who are involved in the inservice; stimulating enough to generate improved performance in designated assignments.

GROUP THREE — We agree that Teacher Corps inservice should be adaptable to the needs of those people involved; planned by those who participate; planned so that the participants reap a tangible reward even if the inservice is held during the school day; interesting, stimulating, humanistic, motivational, rewarding (both intrinsically and extrinsically).

Individualizing Concerns and Needs

Our experiences in designing and implementing inservice, staff development, and continuing education programs support the research by

Francis Fuller (1969) and others. The Fuller Concerns Based Model delineates six developmental categories of concerns teachers may experience while interacting with their teaching environment. These include: 1) Concerns about Role; 2) Concerns about Adequacy; 3) Concerns about being Like or Liking; 4) Concerns about Teaching; 5) Concerns about Pupil Needs; and 6) Concerns about Educational Improvement. The Fuller Teacher Concerns Model has enormous implications for designers of staff development programs.

Within the context of an individualized staff development model, the teacher would select a single mode or a combination of modes based on unique needs and concerns. A teacher concerned with classroom management can gain little from a required inservice session about professional rights and responsibilities. The varied concern levels of teachers may be viewed from the following perspectives:

1. High Self-Concern Levels. The teacher is concerned with his basic functioning on a daily basis. There is little thought given to the future. Actions which may cause high concern are:
   - a) change in schools
   - b) new job or role responsibilities
   - c) personal changes (e.g, marriage, pregnancy, divorce, death of spouse or close relative)
   - d) change in curriculum, number of class preparations, school rules and regulations
   - e) change in evaluative criteria or procedures for job continuance
   - f) personal conflicts (e.g., students, staff, principal, parents)
2. Low Self-Concern Levels. The teacher is "other" oriented. Most immediate concerns are satisfied, and the teacher is concerned with greater issues. Teachers in this category may be concerned by:
   - a) school management and climate
   - b) school-parent relations
   - c) professional development
   - d) curriculum effectiveness
   - e) colleague relationships
   - f) collaborative decision-making on educational issues

Since the concern levels of teachers are relative to time and sequence of events, value judgments about good and bad teaching are not being made. Each teacher may be at different concern levels in various stages of his career. An effective staff development program would incorporate the concerns of teachers into their programs through a *self-selection process* and active involvement in the planning and implementation of the staff development programs.

Relativity of Needs

A staff development program which focuses exclusively on teacher needs, however, is limiting its scope. The needs of parents, students, school, district, and the profession as well must be incorporated into an effective staff development program. The importance of continual needs assessments is evident, and a developmental program should meet both the identified and unidentified needs of teachers. This statement may seem contradictory, but it reflects an educational theory of relativity. If an individual functions in a universe of five, the needs of the individual will reflect his five-factor universe. If the dimension of the universe is increased to a factor of ten, the individual has needs relative to the new universe. A truly unique program would incorporate teacher concerns, stated needs, and community and institutional needs which would increase the universe of each individual (Freiberg, 1977, pp. 58-59).

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Rewards

The teacher's day may be analyzed as 75% teaching, 25% paper work and 50% special activities, such as school trips, candy sales, rehearsals for plays and school bus head counts. Most teachers see their 150% work day crowded with many demands and few rewards. The thought of additional professional responsibilities at the end of an exhausting day causes most teachers to be less than enthusiastic. Dan Lortie discusses the extrinsic rewards as "earnings attached to a role and involves money, income, a level of prestige, and power over others." The intrinsic or psychic, "consist entirely of subjective valuations made in the course of work engagement; their subjectivity means that they can vary from person to person." (1975, p. 104) In his study, nearly 6,000 teachers were asked about work satisfaction. The report concludes that: "76.5 percent chose psychic (intrinsic) rewards compared with 11.9 percent selecting extrinsic rewards and 11.7 percent ancillary rewards." (1975, p. 104)

Evolution of the Clinical Inservice Model

The University of Houston/Houston Independent School District Teacher Corps project began its teacher training activities using a standard approach to the design of the inservice program. A variety of sessions were offered on various afternoons. General topic areas were determined through a needs assessment. There was some enthusiasm, but participation was minimal. Although the inservice activities were attempting to meet immediate needs,

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the program was not utilizing a systemic model to cause long-range professional growth.

After feedback from teachers and project personnel, designers of the inservice program (a parent, teachers, project staff, and school district administrators) re-evaluated the original model and designed a three state program which included:

Phase I. Staff Development Activities
Teachers, Administrators, and Non-certified personnel

Phase II. Inservice Activities
Teachers only

Phase III. A. Formal Continuing Education Activities
Teachers, Teacher Corps Interns, and Administrators
B. Informal Continuing Education Activities
Staff and Teacher Corps Interns

Phase I

The first stage which began in February 1977 and included a series of mini-sessions based on extensive teacher and staff needs assessments. The mini-sessions usually lasted one or two hours and were conducted after the school day. The sessions consisted of both one-time activities which changed each week (e.g., a session on bulletin board), and developmental activities which lasted for 6-8 weeks (e.g., Spanish for the classroom). Teachers and staff had the opportunity to attend either or both mini-sessions through voluntary attendance. These activities were classified under the staff development. In the areas where teacher needs and interests were unique, additional inservice activities were developed. The mini-sessions represented an effective entry point for the teachers into the first phase of the development strand.

A reward system for the inservice and staff development activities contributed toward increased effectiveness of the program. For example, the teachers were given ten Inservice Units by the Teacher Corps project for each activity completed. The Inservice Units were redeemed through the Teacher Corps project for instructional materials to be utilized in the classroom. Some teachers pooled their Inservice Units and hired consultants through the Project to work in their classrooms for a half day. The Inservice Units combined the elements of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Although the number of Inservice Units varied from individual to individual, all teachers had opportunities to earn the Units.

To give the teachers an incentive for attending additional Teacher Corps meetings, each teacher was given a Golden Opportunity coupon for every meeting attended. These coupons, worth 50 Units each, were placed in a box, and each month four teacher's names were selected. Teachers could use the 50 Units to either attend a professional meeting, workshop, or conference in the state or to obtain instructional materials. The Golden Opportunities seemed to make after-school meetings a little more popular.

Phase I, with its reward system supplied the initial incentive for teachers and staff to easily enter the system. During the Spring of 1977, plans were developed for the more intensive and in-depth Phase II staff development program for the entire school. The following is a step-by-step description of the design, development and implementation of the University of Houston/Houston Independent School District 11th Cycle Teacher Corps Summer Inservice Program.

Phase II (Eleventh Cycle Teacher Corps Summer Inservice Program, Roosevelt Elementary School (Vigna, Daigle, Freiberg, Note 1).

The ensuing report documents processes and strategies utilized in planning the June, July and August Teacher Corps Summer Inservice Program at Roosevelt Elementary School (Vigna, Daigle, and Freiberg, 1977). Part One outlines the guidelines formulated for designing the Inservice Program. Part Two included the processes and procedures involved in developing the curriculum for the Inservice Program. Finally, Part Three discusses program implementation.

A general overview of the entire planning process including formal communication lines is provided in Figure 1.

Part I Program Guidelines

The major goal underlying the University of Houston/Houston Independent School District Teacher Corps Inservice Program was the development, implementation and evaluation of a training program designed to maximize the professional growth of inservice personnel. An additional goal was the inclusion of inservice personnel in the development of the program.

During the initial planning of the June Program, the Advisory Board and Management Team formulated guidelines within the parameters of the objectives of the Eleventh Cycle Teacher Corps Project. The Inservice Program was focused on the following objective:

> To develop and field test a coordinated preservice/inservice staff development program which incorporates training experiences for a number of educational roles ranging from instructional aide through instructional manager and which provides professional development for community volunteers, undergraduate student teachers, inservice teachers, Teacher Corps Interns and project staff.

The Management Team had the responsibility for identifying appropriate personnel for the project; for assigning project personnel to operational units at the appropriate times; for monitoring the management functions of each operational unit; for allocating resources equitably among

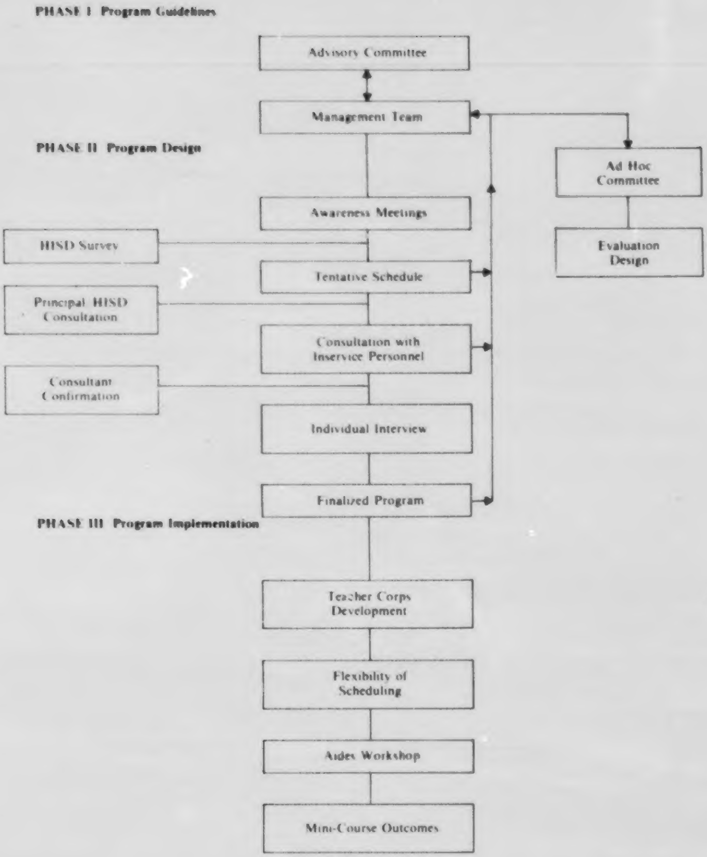
PHASE I Program Guidelines
Advisory Committee
Management Team
PHASE II Program Design
Ad Hoc Committee
Evaluation Design
Awareness Meetings
HISD Survey
Tentative Schedule
Principal HISD Consultation
Consultation with Inservice Personnel
Consultant Confirmation
Individual Interview
Finalized Program
PHASE III Program Implementation
Teacher Corps Development
Flexibility of Scheduling
Aides Workshop
Mini-Course Outcomes

Figure 1. Summer Inservice Component.

operational units; for coordinating preparation of all reports; for monitoring the operations of the total project; for maintaining personnel records and budget records; and for working closely with the Policy Board to interpret and implement policies related to the project.

The Policy Board was responsible for supervising the planning and operation of all aspects of the project. The Board assumed responsibility for interpreting policies and needs of the collaborating agencies; for informing project staff of collaborating agencies' policies; and for advising on policies and priorities for the operations of the Houston Independent School District/University of Houston Teacher Corps Project. The Board also advised project staff in regard to the coordination of needs, goals, priorities and project procedures in the collaborating agencies, the feeder school and its community.

The planned and implemented June program also includes Objectives Three and Five of the Eleventh Cycle University of Houston/Houston Independent School District Teacher Corps proposal.

> Objective Three — To develop and field test multicultural, bilingual student instructional materials which incorporate student talents, interests and abilities and which utilize a positive application of diagnostic/prescriptive instructional processes as means for facilitating student achievement and success.
>
> Objective Five — To establish a Center for the Development of Human Potential which serves as: a) a demonstration site for project products, processes and training activities; b) training resource center housing instructional materials, equipment and resources and in which mini-courses and workshops are provided; c) curriculum enrichment center where students participate in instructional programs based on interests, talents, and abilities; d) a community education center in which members of the community work to increase their effectiveness within the educational arena and contribute to the educational experiences of students; e) a "model" training community educational center supporting alternative school implementation.

The guidelines established by the Advisory Board and endorsed by the Management Team specified that:

1. The target group for the June Inservice Program would be teachers and aides at Roosevelt School, Teacher Corps Interns, staff and interested Area VI supervisory staff;
2. Approximately 75% of the program would be based upon the needs of the inservice personnel. In addition, 25% of the program would be based upon and determined by project and school needs;

3. Inservice personnel would be included during the developmental phase of the program. Program content, anticipated outcomes and learning activities would be identified by the participants;
4. Instructional supplies (e.g., reference books, construction paper, meter sticks, tag board, etc.) would be made available on site for the participants to facilitate the designing of instructional units for pupils;
5. Stipends would be provided to inservice personnel at the rate of $90 per week of attendance;
6. The responsibility of coordinating, planning and assisting in the evaluation of the June program included the Director, Team Leader, Inservice Coordinator, and the Project Evaluator.

An Ad Hoc Committee was established in March 1977 specifically:

1. to plan, design and implement an evaluation of the Inservice Program;
2. to assist with the planning process as required;
3. to facilitate communication among the collaborative partners.

Membership on this committee included representation from the Teacher Corps Project, Houston Independent School District and University of Houston.

Part II Program Design

Awareness meetings were developed to communicate to the target personnel information about the anticipated summer inservice program. They were scheduled and co-chaired by the Project Director and the Principal. The purpose of these meetings was basically twofold:

1. to invite the teachers and staff to participate in the planning and designing of the summer inservice program;
2. to communicate guidelines established for the program (e.g., stipends, instructional supplies).

During the two meetings (February 17 and March 3), interested participants were requested to indicate calendar days they would be available for inservice sessions and were encouraged to suggest topics that could be scheduled.

The written preliminary survey proved the initial interest of instructional personnel in the Summer Inservice Program.

Although all participants identified days of availability, indication did not assure that the teacher would attend the sessions. Five teachers requested more specific information before they felt they could make a commitment to attending a summer inservice program. Three others were able to identify areas of interest and concern which formed the basis for subsequent planning of the summer program.

Feedback from these preliminary meetings included a suggested schedule for summer activities:

1. June: Respondents indicated a preference for Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Thursdays for three to four weeks.
2. July: Respondents indicated Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Thursdays for two to three weeks.
3. August: Respondents indicated a variety of days.

It is important to note that the participants were informed that a final schedule would be based on the preference of the majority. However, individual teachers could also be accommodated in a plan designed specifically to match their preferences.

A major outcome derived from these two awareness meetings was that the June Inservice Program would be all-day sessions; Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Thursdays beginning June 7th and continuing for a four-week period. Monday and Friday would be used by participants for preparation and reading days.

Suggested topics for summer sessions were usually global in scope rather than limited to staff needs, interests or concerns. For example, five participants defined subject areas (e.g., mathematics, reading, social studies, science, language arts). It was acknowledged that a concise specification of topics would be required to assist the coordinator in designing an effective inservice program. Specificity of outcomes was further investigated during the consultation phase (two) of the planning process.

In summary, inservice staff to be included in the summer program were invited; their surveyed responses were initially positive and usually identified days of availability while some defined specific program outcomes.

Houston Independent School District Survey

In April 1977, questionnaires related to the design of Area VI Inservice Programs were administered to all area teachers. The questionnaires from Roosevelt School were tabulated and the information was made available to the Inservice Program Coordinator to assist in formulating the summer program.

It is worth noting that the respondents indicated a preference for mini-courses offered by Houston Independent School District and/or University of Houston consultants. Among topics listed by the inservice staff were: PLATO computer program, bilingual education classroom management. Additional suggestions were specific topics of interest and concern.

The date obtained from the awareness meetings and the Houston Independent School District questionnaire were combined in further refining the planned summer program. A tentative schedule was designed and presented to the Management Team for reaction. Plans were made to consult with interested inservice personnel to encourage them to specify additional topics and anticipated outcomes.

In consultation with the principal, additional topics were suggested which could be included as a possible area of interest for teachers. This information was included in the tentative schedule and anticipated outcomes. In addition, the Assistant Superintendent for Area VI provided information on planned Houston Independent School District Inservice programs, suggested consultants and approved the attendance of alternative school teachers in the Inservice Program in lieu of attending District Magnet School inservice programs.

On April 14 a meeting, chaired by the coordinator, Ralph Vigna, was scheduled by the Roosevelt principal for staff interested in attending the Summer Inservice Program. During this meeting, copies of the tentative schedule and the anticipated outcomes feedback sheet were provided to the faculty and staff who were encouraged to suggest any topic that may not have been included. In addition, they were invited to suggest consultants. It was also announced that a day care facility for children of participants would be available during the sessions.

The reactions of the teachers were positive. One fifth grade teacher emphasized, "it is good to be able to plan our own inservice because we know what we really need."

When requested to identify anticipated outcomes there were various reactions:

1. often teachers experienced difficulty in expressing in writing what they really hoped to achieve;
2. some teachers could identify broad and general outcomes;
3. other teachers specifically indicated what they would anticipate from the sessions they planned to attend.

The Coordinator indicated that these outcomes would be presented in original form to assist the consultants in planning the mini-course sessions.

From the feedback during this meeting, adjustments were made to the schedule (i.e., staff indicated that individual and/or team planning time should be available).

Consultants to conduct the mini-sessions were identified and recommended by participants, Director, Principal, and Area VI Assistant Superintendent.

Each consultant was contacted by the Coordinator and was provided with relevant information. Contractual letters of inservice participation including anticipated outcomes, pre-registration, dates, time, and locations were forwarded to each of the consultants.

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During individual interviews conducted on May 25th a finalized draft of the inservice schedule and activities was discussed privately with each of the anticipated participants. These interviews were deemed necessary by the Project Director in order to accomplish the following:

1. interpretation of the schedule activities and clarification of anticipated outcomes;
2. accommodation of individual needs in scheduling;
3. accommodation of individual concerns that may not have been included in the program outline.

The interviews were held by the Summer Inservice Program Coordinator and Team Leader. Personal data was recorded including names, addresses, telephone numbers, zip codes, social security numbers and numbers of children to use the day care facility. Of the thiry-one participants registered, nine aides indicated they would attend for the duration of the June program component (i.e., three week), and teachers indicated they would attend for various lengths. The reasons for the variation in attendance were differing availabilities of teachers, ranging from marriage to domestic problems. The individual interviews reinforced the idea that the Inservice Program would provide a program beneficial to the staff. For example, three teachers indicated that it was "nice to know that people are really interested in what we want to do". The affective component of the interviews (i.e., showing interest and concern towards the participants) and the ability of the interviewers to accommodate individual differences cannot be overemphasized. For example, according to the Inservice Coordinator, one teacher was telephoned to indicate that the session she intended to take could be rescheduled at her convenience. She established a date and the coordinator was able to confirm her request. Later she told another teacher that she was really surprised that someone had called her and was able to accommodate her request. The use of an interview team made it possible to conduct individual interviews with potential inservice participants. It is recognized that this personal contact can influence participating personnel through the accommodation of their interests and concerns in the design of an effective training program.

A finalized draft of the Inservice Program schedule listing consultants was presented to the Management Team and final details were addressed (e.g., lunch arrangements, key note speakers for the first two days, management team participation during the first two days).

Copies of the program were circulated on June 2nd to members of the Advisory Council, Management Team, Ad Hoc Committee, Area VI Administrators, University of Houston personnel, and inservice participants. (The program cover was designed by one of the Teacher Corps Interns and produced by the Learning Resource Center at the University of Houston.

Part III Implementation

During the first week of activities, participants included Management Team members, teachers, aides, principal, Area VI administrators and Teacher Corps project staff. The purposes of the activities were to facilitate organizational growth by focusing upon individual human developmental activities. During the two-day development process, participants became better acquainted with each other; felt more warmly toward each other; they became more sensitive to colleagues and prepared to use human development activities with pupils; became equipped with specific skills in small group dynamics, including the complex processes involved in consensus forming and maintaining a positive attitude to tasks; designed a set of statements specifically related to Inservice and Teacher Corps; and became more open to lines of communication.

To facilitate small group work during the inservice, four teachers from the Roosevelt staff had been trained by the workshop leader on May 23, 1977.

In addition to the affective outcomes, the participants developed consensus group statements on what Teacher Corps Inservice should be.

A final statement by all the participants indicates a commitment to inservice education. In addition, the statement provides a basis for the development of a conceptual framework for future Teacher Corps Inservice development:

> We Agree Teacher Corps Inservice should be: inclusive of professional and nonprofessional educators in a collaborative effort, the inservice program planning should include input from participants; the goals and objectives should be clearly defined and based on the needs of the participants to help them become more effective in their roles; the inservice should take place in a positive and cooperative environment. Program design should allow for flexibility, adaptability, stimulation, creativity and motivation; the inservice should provide educators with alternative methods to better meet the needs of all children at their level; the inservice should be held during the regular school hours and if not, tangible compensation should be made available.

From participant evaluation after the first week, participants perceived the inservice program as relevant, positive and meaningful. Among participant comments after the first week were: "Well planned and organized"; "most helpful to me personally and I know it will help me in the classroom"; "I didn't know that she was so interested in me". "What a way to start the inservice. Hope the mini-courses are all as interesting."

Individual scheduling to accommodate individual preferences and interests were not covered in the program booklet. An example of individual accommodations included the following: one teacher attended a special half day at the University of Houston Learning Resource Center for a session in photography; teachers requested more planning time in lieu of attending two mini-courses; five teachers were scheduled at various times for PLATO computer program follow up courses in July and August.

During the second and third week, teacher aides were exclusively involved in activities to improve their effectiveness in the classroom. Human developmental activities, diagnosis skills and construction of instructional aids to support these skills were covered by their training program. However, they expressed the concern that they would like to meet with teachers to share the activities they had experienced. For example, they expressed the feeling that if teachers were more aware of their two week programs, their roles in the classroom could be more effectively employed by the teachers.

To facilitate communication between the two subgroups (i.e., teachers and aides) a sharing session was scheduled on June 16. As a result of that sharing session, some teachers requested that the aides better share their instructional support materials. The aides provided complete masters of all their instructional support materials for the Teacher Corps Resource Center which were accessible to all Roosevelt teachers this fall.

The aides also indicated they would prefer to have more time designated for planning with the teachers. Joint planning sessions should be given consideration for implementation in future staff inservice programming.

Evaluation data indicated that teachers who were specific in stating their outcomes usually achieved them. When specified outcomes were too general, one of the following occurred:

1. The consultant would begin the mini-session by requesting the participants to clarify what they hoped to achieve. This approach appeared to be effective in that the participants had the opportunity to re-state their outcomes and advise the consultant specifically what they hoped to achieve.
2. The consultants conducted the mini-sessions assuming that the participant's pre-stated outcomes were valid. In some cases, participants' needs and concerns had changed during the inservice program.

The participants' rating of the mini-sessions indicated that the pre-stated outcomes were met. An evaluation of the mini-sessions and the consultants indicated that the participants perceived the summer inservice as extremely valuable.

Phase II of the staff development program became the foundation for Phase III, the Clinical Instructor Program. The preceding phases may be viewed as developmental both organizationally and instructionally. During the summer, a joint faculty and staff statement became the basis for the clinical inservice program which was developed and implemented in Phase III in the fall of 1977.

Phase III The Clinical Inservice Model

The director of the Eleventh Cycle University of Houston/Houston Independent School District Teacher Corps Project designed the clinical inservice model to meet the needs and constraints of a large urban school district. The model is an outgrowth of the consensus statement made by the faculty and staff during the Phase II summer inservice activities (see p. 132) which indicated the teachers' desire for professional growth activities during regular school hours. This may seem revolutionary for the education profession although similar programs have been commonplace in the business field for decades.

Inservice during regular school hours in a field based setting addresses a critical issue of inservice education: transference of skills, attitudes and knowledge from the inservice environment into the classroom. The millions spent on inservice activities, which represent less than 3% of most school budgets, have had negligible impact on classroom instruction or learning. The cost-effectiveness of inservice programs must be realized in the classroom.

The clinical inservice model presents teachers the opportunity to:

1. receive inservice training during the regular school day;
2. team teach with another teacher;
3. observe a consultant demonstrate specific teaching skills in the classroom with students;
4. receive feedback on teaching skills the teacher has acquired during the inservice sessions;
5. combine theory and practice to meet the needs of teacher and student.

A key element in the clinical inservice program is the clinical instructor who is an experienced teacher with a recommendation from a previous principal, a master's degree and some experience with team teaching and/or staff development.

The clinical inservice process consists of three stages (see Figure 2).

During the first stage, the classroom teacher team teaches with a clinical instructor who demonstrates specific skills which will be mastered by the teacher as a result of participation in the inservice program during the second stage. The first stage of teaming provides an opportunity for the clinical instructor to become oriented to the classroom procedures, policies and management which will assure continuity and stability in instruction and classroom routines, and to become acquainted with the students.

During the second stage of the process, the clinical instructor assumes responsibility for the class while the teacher is released to attend inservice sessions in another part of the school. The inservice sessions are designed to

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	1st Week of Cycle
MONDAY WEDNESDAY FRIDAY	Classroom Teacher and Clinical Instructor Team Plan and Teach
	2nd Week of Cycle
MONDAY 9:00 to 2:00....	Clinical Instructor assumes instructional responsibilities in the classroom* Classroom teachers attend inservice in Teacher Corps building at Roosevelt.
TUESDAY 9:00 to 12:00....	Consultant works with classroom teacher in her classroom (demonstrations of skills presented at inservice, etc.)
WEDNESDAY 9:00 to 2:00....	Same process as Monday. Inservice session reinforces Monday and Tuesday activities and extend into new areas.
WEDNESDAY 3:00 to 4:00....	Mini-session with Consultant for 1 hour after school. (All teachers from Roosevelt, Janowski and Burbank dissemination schools are invited to attend.)
THURSDAY 9:00 to 12:00....	Same process as Tuesday. Inservice Consultant reinforces skills presented Monday-Thursday and extends into new learning areas.
FRIDAY 9:00 to 2:00....	Same process as Monday and Wednesday. Inservice Consultant develops closure with the classroom teacher in skills development.
	3rd Week of Cycle MONDAY
MONDAY WEDNESDAY FRIDAY	Classroom Teacher and Clinical Instructor Team Plan and teach to apply newly acquired skills. Clinical Instructor gives feedback to classroom teacher.

*Note: The classroom teacher begins and concludes each day with his/her students.

Figure 2. Clinical Instructor Cycle.

help develop a cognitive understanding of the research and theory which supports the skill the teacher is attempting to master. The sessions help relate the skill to classroom situations and to plan for actual application. In addition, the sessions provide an opportunity for the teacher to practice applying the skill in a protected setting. The consultant will be available to demonstrate the new skill in each classroom upon request by the teacher.

During the third stage, the clinical instructor and teacher team teach again. The clinical instructor assists the teacher in application of the skill and provides feedback at the teacher's request. The purpose of this state is to enable the teacher to "bridge the gap" between cognitive and practice activities during the inservice sessions and skill application in the classroom.

The program began in November 1977 with the selection of the clinical instructors. The teachers, principal and project staff were all involved in the selection of four clinical instructors.

The clinical instructors were trained through the *School-Based Teacher Educator* program (Houston, et al, 1977) by completing the introductory modules: *Interpersonal Communication, Exploring Clinical Practice, Planning,* and *Classroom and School Data Collection Procedures.*

Based on the information obtained through the SBTE Self-Assessment, training time and materials were next devoted to the improvement of knowledge and skills related to assisting teachers in selection and utilization of various strategies and models of teaching. The University of Houston Professional Teacher Preparations Program materials related to this competency were utilized.

Orientation of the clinical instructors to the project and to the school was accomplished through sessions with the project director and school principal. In addition, the clinical instructors participated in the formulation of a clinical inservice handbook (note 2).

Finally, the clinical instructors worked with the individual inservice consultants in order to learn the specific ways in which they might assist the teachers in mastery and application of new knowledge and skills.

The inservice sessions were designed by the various inservice consultants in order to meet the following conditions:

1. The objectives of the inservice sessions should include the outcomes specified by the teachers during the needs assessment.
2. The inservice objectives should be phrased in behavioral terms and should reflect what the teacher must know (cognitive objectives) and do (skill objectives).
3. The inservice consultant should identify ways in which the clinical instructor can assist the teacher in mastering and applying for new skills and should provide appropriate training for the clinical instructors.

4. The inservice sessions should provide alternate means of mastering and applying the objectives.
5. The inservice sessions should provide opportunities to practice new skills in a protected setting away from the classroom.
6. The inservice sessions should provide opportunities for the teacher to plan for application of the skill in the classroom setting.
7. The inservice sessions should provide alternative learning activities for teachers with differing interests and abilities.
8. The inservice consultant should provide demonstrations in the teachers' classrooms.
9. The inservice sessions should allow for active participation in the learning process rather than the passive reception of information.
10. The inservice consultant should provide the teacher with feedback with regard to her/his mastery of the new skills and knowledge.

The clinical inservice program is based on the assumption that inservice education should be systematic and non-redundant. This type of organization is achieved through individualized inservice education. Teachers of various abilities and with different concerns and interests can all have their needs met through an individualized program. In the program at Roosevelt each teacher was asked to state the topic in which he/she was most interested and the outcomes he/she hoped to achieve as a result of the inservice program. These outcomes became the objectives of the inservice sessions. The inservice consultants arranged learning alternatives which enabled each teacher to achieve the identified outcomes. Prerequisites for each inservice session were stated by the inservice consultants, and the activities within the sessions were individualized to meet the specific needs and abilities of each teacher.

The larger issue of preservice/inservice articulation is indirectly addressed through the collaborative planning and decision-making of preservice and inservice teacher educators associated with the Teacher Corps Project. Incongruencies in goals and perspectives of each group were identified and resolved in the collaborative planning and decision-making process.

One of the major goals of the Teacher Corps Project is the institutionalization of products, practices, and processes which prove effective during the life of the project. Teacher Corps projects throughout the United States represent a temporary system within the permanent university, school district, and community systems.

The key elements to the institutionalization of the Clinical Inservice Model are: 1) acceptance of the model by educational personnel; 2) effectiveness of the model as perceived by educational personnel; 3) dissemination of information about the model and its consequences;

4) availability of funds and resources required by the model; and 5) integration of the model into existing staff development programs. A plan of institutionalization was developed and implemented by the Project's Demonstration/Dissemination Unit.

The Clinical Instructor Model is being evaluated using a variety of evaluative approaches. The teachers and principal will receive pre- and post-questionnaires to identify attitudes and general perceptions on the knowledge and skills gained. The total effectiveness of the program will be measured by the teachers, principal, and staff (including the clinical instructors). An ethnographic study was conducted to obtain data on the transfer of the knowledge and skills gained in the inservice activity to the classroom setting.

A final evaluation report of the inservice program may be obtained by writing to the Teacher Corps project after October 1978.

Lawrence and Edelfelt (1975, p. 16) summarize the issue of inservice education:

> Piecemeal, patchwork, haphazard and ineffective are the harsh words we have used thus far in pressing our indictment of inservice education. The words suggest, but do not clearly state, the fundamental problem: There has never been a broad scheme of inservice education with a clear concept of its purpose, appropriate undergirding of policy, legitimacy of commitment and fixed responsibility for attaining agreed upon goals. It is with a broad scheme that we now want to deal; lesser schemes will be too incomplete to work.

The University of Houston/Houston Independent School District Eleventh Cycle Teacher Corps inservice program described in this chapter is a response to the concern for a systemic model for the improvement of the teaching profession.

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SECTION IV
Content/Process Models

Chapter 1 — Developing Multicultural Dimensions for Teacher Corps Inservice Education.

by James E. Anderson, II, Associate Professor, College of Education, University of Houston

Chapter 2 — Learning Centers: A Viable Alternative for Inservice Training

by Carole Urzúa, Inservice Clinical Professor, Teacher Corps, College of Education, The University of Texas at Austin and
David Dillon, Professor, University of Alberta

Chapter 3 — Music: A Fine Arts Component for Alternative Staff Development through Teacher Corps

by Samuel D. Miller, Professor, College of Education, University of Houston

CHAPTER 1

One of the basic challenges for Teacher Corps is to develop inservice mechanisms that will provide for constant renewal and change.

In the chapter, Multicultural Dimensions for Teacher Corps Inservice Education, Dr. James Anderson develops a philosophy and process for implementing multicultural inservice education. Dr. Anderson proposes a series of learning experiences which will expand the curricular dimensions of inservice education.

DEVELOPING MULTICULTURAL DIMENSIONS FOR TEACHER CORPS INSERVICE EDUCATION

by James E. Anderson, II

Introduction

From its very inception, Teacher Corps has had, as its fundamental mandate and perennial "charge," the task of improving the quality of educational instruction and the relevance of education for low income and often neglected children. Specifically in 1965, Teacher Corps was initiated as an educational force and instrument for preparing teachers to work with children who had been educationally excluded for generations. As a result, Teacher Corps has been involved from the beginning in the task of identifying and encouraging specific changes in teacher education institutions in order to address the needs of those children from low-income areas (Wegher, 1976).

As a demonstration program concerned with relevant educational alternatives and adaptable training processes that could be made available to schools and higher education institutions across the nation, its specific educational challenge was, and is today, to develop exemplary model projects that demonstrate the integration of graduate preservice and the more recently emphasized notion of inservice education.

Directly related to these Teacher Corps goals and its rapidly increasing emphasis on inservice education are four permeating and interrelated themes which have served, with varying degrees of effectiveness, as basic dimensional contexts for the development of many Teacher Corps programs and educational endeavors. The first of these themes is "collaboration," which means that Teacher Corps is, in fact, a "family affair" which involves federal, state, network, and local facilities interrelated on various levels with total school faculties, interns, students, parents, and local communities and institutions of higher learning.

The second theme is "community-based education," which means that the community in which the project exists is of paramount importance and that it plays a significant role in the conceptualization, development, and operation of the project in its area.

The utilization of "field based schools coupled with specific instructional programs" is the basis of the third theme. Both of these components are manifested through the placing of interns and inservice teachers who are learning and practicing new or refined teaching skills in actual classrooms in field situations.

The fourth theme is "multicultural education," the development both of multiracial and multiethnic staffs and of multicultural insights into various pedagogical practices and instructional materials (which are more reflective of the multicultural nature of our society) is the basis of this theme. Teacher Corps has made a significant contribution and start toward the total realization of this theme. However, unlike the first three themes, which have grown in many ways out of and evolved from more traditional and well established philosophical frames of references, the concept of multiculturalism is still an emerging dynamic.

As one looks closely at the conceptual nature of multiculturalism, the essence of the idea and its significance to Teacher Corps becomes increasingly clear. Multiculturalism and its educational embodiment (often referred to as multicultural education) have many definitions; but in its most meaningful context, it is education that facilitates learning in children or adults at optimum levels of achievement, regardless, of their race, ethnicity, socio-economic status or environment. The fact is that multiculturalism is the true spirit and essence of Teacher Corps. Unlike the other themes, which are important but yet somewhat provincial and one-dimensional in terms of total programmatic impact, multicultural education is at once both universal and multidimensional in its total impact on Teacher Corps. Multicultural education is the universal context and the total encompassing frame of reference that all other Teacher Corps programmatic themes and experience must embody if, in fact, Teacher Corps is to respond to its fundamental mandate.

Equally important in terms of the current overall impact of Teacher Corps has been its recent programmatic emphasis on inservice education. Much of this emphasis has been motivated by the recent teacher surpluses which have allowed fewer new teacher interns into the system. Additionally, this has been coupled with the need to renew and change the skills and competencies of many of the practitioners that are already within the schools. In a general sense, the purpose of inservice education has been in gaining additional degrees, credentialing, licensing, overall school improvement, professional advancement or promotion, retraining for new assignments and personal professional development (Far West Teacher Corps Network, 1976). More specifically inservice education/staff development is now beginning to bear the brunt of continuity of program quality for responsiveness to educational needs, for the initiation of programs for change, and for the opportunity for individuals to engage in self-examination and renewal (Bishop, 1976).

It has become apparent that Teacher Corps in its current context is being affected by two significant developments: 1) the emerging of an all encompassing dynamic known as multiculturalism and; 2) the development of a substantial programmatic thrust in the area of inservice education. Without a doubt, a lengthy discussion could be given regarding the growth and the impact of these two significant developments, both internal and external to the Teacher Corps effort. However, given that both of these developments are realistic postures in Teacher Corps at present, how then

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does Teacher Corps address the real functional question: "How does Teacher Corps combine multicultural education perspectives and inservice education into productive experiences and programs?"

This question has two aspects, which will be treated in turn. The first aspect involves impressing upon individuals involved with Teacher Corps the need for and the importance of (1) developing a multicultural frame of reference and philosophy for all inservice education experiences, (2) developing and securing individual and programmatic commitment to that philosophy, (3) developing and implementing for inservice education multicultural curriculum dimensions reflective of that philosophy and commitment and (4) developing a plan to monitor the ongoing inservice processes. The second aspect involves suggesting some developmental and programmatic (process-oriented) notions that permeate these four comments.

Initially, it is important to view the four areas from, at least, two perspectives. The first perspective is organizational, in that the four areas imply in a very limited fashion, a notion of direction, scope and sequence in terms of the total programmatic development for multicultural inservice education programs. The second perspective is both informational and operational, in that they also relate to the total programmatic development of a multicultural inservice education program. Thus, in actuality, they become integral factors in a planning process for assisting Teacher Corps projects in determining where to go and how to get there.

The Development of a Philosophy for Multicultural Inservice Education

The development of a comprehensive philosophical stance for multicultural inservice education is of paramount importance. As new educational needs and challenges present themselves, a plethora of educational possibilities begin to emerge under the rubric of educational reform, bringing with them demands for new programmatic forms and new roles for the teacher (Joyce, 1972). Multicultural inservice education is a renewal and a change movement which represents demands for new inservice education training and new kinds of teachers based upon the reality of having to serve a culturally diverse and complex society. Therefore, in order to develop an inservice education program that will help Teacher Corps personnel function effectively with students in a culturally diverse society it becomes critical to develop a philosophical foundation. Such a philosophy would serve as a tool to organize diverse data and information concerning essential understandings, skills, attitudes, and processes which would assist in identifying the essential content for multicultural inservice education programs (Hilliard, 1974). This philosophy would provide a form for interpreting, as accurately as possible, the forces that might influence the preparation of teachers and other educators for a multicultural society.

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Secondly, the philosophy would provide the opportunity to identify, select or synthesize from the data and information collected a body of beliefs or principles that would give to a person who entertained them a certain philosophical bias for changing educators in a particular way for a multicultural society. The result of this second philosophical notion might be a set of assumptions and tenets from which programmatic responses for inservice education could be derived.

Thirdly, a philosophy could provide for the Teacher Corps personnel an integrated personal view that would serve to guide professional conduct and thinking in the difficult task of helping to renew and change teachers.

The result of this philosophical inquiry might well be a personalized interpretation or self-realization of what the Teacher Corps person might view as his own particular role in relationship to the accomplishment of the total objective.

We suggest nine processes which are helpful in the development of a philosophy for multicultural inservice education.

1. Take part in self-assessment to examine personal frames of reference predispositions, biases, and prejudices as they relate to cultural diversity, Teacher Corps, and inservice education.
2. Develop new knowledge bases, explore and learn about other cultures and ethnic groups.
3. Initiate and develop meaningful dialogue with schools, parents, community people, and students of all cultural and ethnic groups about all facets of the inservice education process.
4. Critically examine the relationships of various cultural and ethnic groups to the ideology of the "melting pot" and the ideology of "cultural pluralism."
5. Identify, interpret, and evaluate educational problems and their relationship to inservice education, particularly in the areas of objectives, practices, outcomes, student needs, societal needs, and curriculum materials from various cultural and ethnic group perspectives.
6. Utilize various research modes (such as analytical, applied, deliberative, experimental, historical, investigative, and observational) to examine various educational philosophies and inservice education practices.
7. Utilize critical thinking methods (such as reflective thinking, reasoned inquiry) to study concepts, categories, and hypotheses that relate to renewing and changing educational experiences and programs.
8. Observe and participate in culturally diverse and cross-cultural experiences both in and out of the field of education.

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9. Interpret and organize the experiences and data collected in the above eight processes into general statements about multicultural inservice education in the areas of (a) goals, (b) inservice education curriculum, (c) inservice training strategies and methodologies, (d) nature of learning theories as they relate to teacher training and inservice education, (e) roles for the inservice educator or trainers, (f) roles of content for inservice education and training, (g) roles of inservice education participants, and (h) role of evaluation in the inservice education process.

The Development of Individual and Programmatic Commitment to That Philosophy

If one begins to think seriously about what kind of innovative impact a philosophy for multicultural inservice education would mean in terms of training practices, it becomes very clear that it could mean a major programmatic change for Teacher Corps people and the institutions involved. However, it must be remembered that neither people nor institutions are often changed by philosophies or perfunctory processes that operate solely on cognitive insights or in an intellectual vacuum. Teacher Corps personnel and Teacher Corps programs must recognize through cultural assessment and introspection that their professional motiations are by nature both "self-derivative" and "other interpreted" (Anderson, 1975). At the same time, they must realize that their sincerity and the value commitments embodied in their philosophies and in their individual and programmatic frames of references do affect their educational efforts with both their peers and the people they serve (Ibid.). Additionally, it should also be noted that most educational renewal has not in the past and probably cannot in the future be accomplished by either Teacher Corps personnel, teachers, administrators, consultants, parents, teacher educators, community people, or students working in isolation.

In order to facilitate a philosophy and to realize its objectives and goals, a consciously well-planned effort to maintain a supportive project and program atmosphere for the achievement of those goals must be sustained (Ibid., p. 21). The following ideas are suggested as components of a total process that would seek to gain and establish individual and programmatic commitment to multicultural inservice education:

1. That the significance and need for multicultural inservice education be recognized by the Teacher Corps and its related institutions of higher education and the school districts that it serves. That this commitment to the philosophies and tenets of multicultural inservice education be the frame of reference for all inservice education processes in Teacher Corps.
2. That the national, network and local project leadership of Teacher Corps and its inservice education programs encourage and

promote individual initiative on the part of all Teacher Corps and its inservice education programs encourage and promote individual initiative on the part of all Teacher Corps staff and communities to take part in multicultural inservice education. It is also important that these efforts be recognized by the regular reward systems of Teacher Corps.

3. That a clearly defined organizational pattern for a curriculum planning and development process for multi-cultural inservice education be defined with procedures for effecting the needed changes.
4. That adequate facilities and time for curriculum planning and curriculum development with new and innovative practices be given to those individuals involved.
5. That adequate financial resources be allocated to the inservice education programs for the teaching materials and media, staff positions, consultants, and program development purposes.
6. That adequate technical and consultative services be made available to the multicultural inservice education planning and development phases.
7. That opportunities for the interchange of ideas, training experiences, and materials with other projects concerning multicultural education and inservice education be provided by Teacher Corps.
8. That Teacher Corps projects and their inservice education programs develop relationships with the communities that they serve so that they may take part in the decision-making processes that affect them (Alexander, 1966).

The Development of Multicultural Curriculum Dimensions for Teacher Corps Inservice Education

Traditionally, inservice education has had as its major responsibility the task of credentialing, maintaining, and providing professional growth to teachers and of assisting them in becoming competent educators of al children in our society. Just as traditionally, inservice education has failed in its task to maintain teacher competence particularly as it related to many of these children. Lewis Rubin points out:

> ...Inservice education has indeed been virtually a lost cause..., teacher professional growth has not been taken seriously, it lacks systematic methodology, and it has been managed with astonishing clumsiness. It is not surprising, therefore, that teachers have grown accustomed to its impotence and that administrators have come to regard it as a routine exercise in futility (Rubin, 1971).

The logical questions then become: What impact is being made upon the students by the currently produced types of teachers? In what ways are the various groups or kinds of students not being served? In what specific ways should inservice education curriculum be changed?

If the question of inservice education reform is looked at in the context of better preparing teachers to teach the great variations among children of the American people, the enormity of the task becomes clear. There are as many reforms as there are reformers. Nevertheless there appear to be, at least, three repeatedly voiced main concerns to which inservice programs need to respond. They are: (1) All teachers need to become much more knowledgeable about the impact and influences of culture, ethnicity, race, and socio-economic status on teaching and the students who are being taught; (2) All teachers need to become more competent in their abilities to diagnose, analyze, and interpret the ongoing dynamics of new classroom situations which they must face daily; (3) All teachers need significantly more preparation in the basic teaching skills to make them effective classroom educators (Smith, 1969).

With these concerns in mind, this writer offers the following list of many of the new multicultural curriculum dimensions that might be utilized and developed into significant learning experiences for Teacher Corps inservice training purposes. This compendium is not complete nor could it be.

A Compendium of Possible New Multicultural Curriculum Dimensions for Inservice Education

Personal Identity, Assessment, and Awareness

Understanding the need for competent teachers in a multicultural society.
Utilizing personal and self assessment batteries.
Understanding myths about teacher education.
Understanding studies of teacher related problems in a culturally diverse society.

Education and Culture

Understanding theories and dimensions of culture.
Understanding and utilizing cultural and ethnic group histories and studies.
Understanding cultural and ethnic values in society and education.
Participating in cultural group and community studies in education.

Language and Cultural Communication in Education

Developing skills in transracial communication for educational purposes.

Understanding dialects.

Utilizing bilingual skills and techniques.

Developing skills in interpersonal communication in multiethnic groups.

Understanding nonverbal kinesics in the classroom in multicultural settings.

Prejudice, Discrimination, and Racism

Understanding theories of prejudice, discrimination and racism.

Developing skills in the identification of prejudice, discrimination, and racism in society and educational practices.

Teacher-student recognition of prejudice, discrimination, and racism in the classroom.

Utilizing strategies, methods, and techniques for teachers to combat racism in education.

Multicultural Curricular and Instructional Development

Studying myths about curriculum and instruction in multicultural eduation.

Gaining cognitive and affective insights in learning styles.

Developing models and design strategies for K-12 curriculum development

Developing, demonstrating, and utilizing methods and techniques for K-12 curriculum modification.

Multicultural Learning Materials and Media

Developing and utilizing criteria for selecting appropriate multicultural learning of materials (including mediated materials).

Gaining knowledge of sources for multicultural learning materials and media.

Developing techniques for utilizing multicultural learning materials in learning activities.

Demonstrating techniques for developing multicultural learning materials.

Community Involvement in a Multicultural Society

Examining the nature of communities in a multicultural society.

Participating in community analysis and study methods.

Developing strategies for involving the educator in communities.

Directly related to the successful development and implementation of any substantial curriculum reform in inservice education is the planning and organization of a process for accomplishing that task. In order to facilitate that change, it seems necessary to describe a sequential process that could provide direction and guidance for effectively accomplishing that goal. Here, a seven step process is suggested to assist in the development of new multicultural curriculum dimensions for teacher education.

1. Develop work channels and communication lines with all projected groups who might be involved (including school district administrative and supervisory personnel, school boards, community groups, interns, parents, classroom teachers, college of education faculty, and Teacher Corps staff) in the development or operation of a multicultural inservice education program for Teacher Corps concerning curriculum needs, instructional innovations, and critical educational issues that are confronting various communities or groups of students.
2. Review available research and related literature on multicultural education to see how it relates to inservice education, particularly in areas of purposes and goals, general decisions about curriculum instructional strategies, the nature of learning, roles of the teacher, roles of the student, roles of the the content, and the nature of evaluation processes.
3. Initiate an identification and selection process for multicultural inservice education program development or reform and curricular directions to meet the needs of all the demographic groups which your network, project, or inservice education program serves. Needs assessment and delineation of teacher roles offer two conceptualizations for approaching this task.
4. Begin to develop proposals and design experimental programs with prototypical learning experiences and activities for multicultural inservice training. (This phase should emphasize a research and demonstration.)
5. Develop working relationships between multicultural education specialists and Teacher Corps so that various curriculum areas may introduce multicultural learning dimensions into their special areas (such as: language arts, reading, special education, business education, science education, art education, music education, social studies education, guidance and counseling, and physical education).
6. Initiate the development of Teacher Corps staff inservice for all Teacher Corps networks and projects and for the people outside the Teacher Corps staff who would be taking part in the inservice education process.
7. Develop a timetable for the introduction and inclusion of new multicultural inservice learning experiences with adequate support systems under very careful supervision (Gilchrist, 1963).

The Development of a Plan to Monitor Ongoing Inservice Education Processes in Teacher Corps

One of the basic challenges for Teacher Corps is to develop inservice mechanisms that will provide for constant renewal and change. In order to accomplish this, several kinds of decisions will have to be made based upon data regarding such things as (1) needs assessment, (2) possible programs that will meet the identified learner needs, (3) the competencies of the related educational personnel and (4) the procedures, administrative leadership, and supportive mechanisms needed for successful inservice/staff development programs (Bishop, p. 268). Among the most important of all related procedures and support mechanisms for inservice education is a systematic approach to decision-making, known as a monitoring plan.

A well conceived monitoring plan could provide Teacher Corps with ways of enhancing its efficiency and effectiveness while at the same time producing data that could be useful in terms of credibility and accountability. In developing new and effective multidimensional educational programs, such as multicultural inservice experience, it is important and necessary to establish creative methods to "overview" the entire endeavor as it operates.

The exact nature and substance of a monitoring plan for a particular inservice program is directly related to the mission of the program *and* the particular function/tasks that are needed to carry it out successfully. In the case of multicultural inservice education, the development of a carefully conceived plan could be especially instrumental and highly valuable in terms of facilitating productive experiences. This notion is particularly true in the sense that many of the experiences will be cross-cultural and will necessitate the highest degree of planning in order to deal adequately with the sensitivities and subtleties that this kind of training often demands.

With full recognition of the complexity of this task, the following list presents groups of suggested general components for a monitoring plan. In each of these seven general areas, the personnel involved in the inservice program would generate a set of questions or statements that would cover areas such as procedures, responsibilities, materials, resources, personnel, schedules, timing, sequence, participants, goals, objectives, and overall programmatic format. (Or particular significance in terms of the monitoring plan is a charted and projective time analysis and record of events for the planning period and during the program.)

Suggested General Components for a Monitoring Plan for Teacher Corps Inservice Education Program

1. Organizing and conducting Inservice Education Development Activities

   This component involves the Teacher Corps staff in planning the resources and procedures that facilitate all program phases.

(Develop a pertinent set of questions or statements related to this area and a time table.)

2. Conducting the Needs Assessment

   This component involves conducting a needs assessment to gather data about students, schools, Teacher Corps personnel, and communities relative to Teacher Corps.

   (Develop a pertinent set of questions or statements related to this area and time table.)

3. Developing Statements of Goals and Objectives

   This component involves stating for inservice education goals and objectives that are data based and shared with Teacher Corps personnel, teachers, students and community members.

   (Develop a pertinent set of questions or statements related to this area and time table.)

4. Selecting the Educational Improvement Activity

   This component involves decision-making about the appropriate educational improvement activity that meets goals and objectives already developed.

   (Develop a pertinent set of questions or statements related to this area and time table.)

5. Determining the Competencies of the Target Educational Personnel

   This component involves identifying the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of Teacher Corps personnel who will be needed to implement and operate the inservice education activities.

   (Develop a pertinent set of questions or statements related to this area and time table.)

6. Conducting Regular Evaluation

   This component involves looking at intermediate and terminal outcomes and using data for decision-making, reporting and feedback procedures.

   (Develop a pertinent set of questions or statements related to this area and time table.)

7. Implementing the Program

   This component involves the implementation by Teacher Corps personnel involved in the inservice education programs of an inservice education program (with continuous refinement and expansion of the procedures, structure, and evaluation components).

   (Develop a pertinent set of questions or statements related to this area and time table.)

Summary

The development of multicultural dimensions for Teacher Corps inservice education programs, as well as their potential impact, will depend greatly upon the combined capacities of the individuals and the projects involved. It is important to create and sustain a "process" that will facilitate Teacher Corps programs in this area. In order to assist in accomplishing this objective, this paper has suggested ideas useful in providing some scope, sequence and direction to this area.

To have any significant impact on improving the abilities of teachers to facilitate higher levels of achievement with the students that Teacher Corps serves, the development of a multicultural perspective in inservice education is not debatable; it is imperative.

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CHAPTER 2

Teachers learn more effectively through active involvement in the learning process.

Dr. Carol Urzua and Dr. David Dillon present an alternative model for inservice education which actively involves the participant in the learning process. They feel theoretical principles are better understood, remembered and accepted through an inductive, illustrative approach. This chapter develops a model which will give developers of inservice programs an alternative to the standard format for implementing an effective inservice program.

LEARNING CENTERS: A VIABLE ALTERNATIVE FOR INSERVICE TRAINING

by *Carole Urzua,* University of Texas at Austin
David Dillon, University of Alberta

Place: A room in any school.

Time: Teacher inservice day.

Setting: The room is noisy. Small groups of teachers are working together around tables. Some are reading directions, some are working on materials, and others have put the materials aside to engage in discussion. Occasionally the groups move from table to table, usually re-forming as teachers choose one table instead of another. At first glance there appears to be no leader in the room, but after awhile it can be noted that one person moves from group to group, sometimes participating in the activity, sometimes answering questions, and sometimes just listening.

The scene is an alternative approach to teacher inservice training devised to provide an alternative to the frequent ineffectiveness and limitations of the traditional lecture approach. First, the time limitations of much inservice are usually severe, from several hours to one day. Second, subsequent follow-up with the group of participants is usually difficult or impossible. Third, topics to be dealt with are often broad, e.g., individualizing instruction, teaching reading in the content areas, etc. Finally, teachers are generally concerned with their actual behavior or instructional activities in the classroom, while the leader (the consultant, supervisor, or principal) often feels a need to first provide a theoretical base. As a result, at the end of such a session, leaders often feel that they have not sufficiently developed the topic and teachers leave feeling that they have not received what they needed.

In order to avoid the frustrations felt by both leaders and participants in these situations, an approach has been devised which utilizes independent activities placed in learning centers or stations. The instructional activities are designed to teach general principles inductively, while application of these theoretical tenets is illustrated by the activities. The activities are designed for small groups in which teachers share common experiences, jointly seek answers to questions, and exchange ideas. Each center contains (1) background information on the topic, (2) directions and materials for the activity, and (3) discussion questions focusing on the general principles illustrated in the activity. Extension of the newly-acquired knowledge to generate additional instructional goals and accompanying activities is also encouraged. The leader's role changes from the traditional one of a central, directing figure dispensing knowledge to a multi-faceted role as guide, resource, prober, encourager. The approach could be called "teacher-centered" since the teacher is the student in this case.

This alternative approach is described in this paper as follows: First, key concepts upon which this method is based are enumerated and explored in greater detail, utilizing examples of actual activities to illustrate their implementation whenever appropriate. Second, the procedure of this method is discussed in greater detail. All illustrations are from recent inservice sessions devised by the authors on developing oral language ability as part of the elementary language arts program.

Key Underlying Concepts

1) *People learn more effectively through involvement in the learning process.* "Acting on" the surrounding environment is the major tenet of Piaget's theory of cognitive development without which cognitive maturations remains only a potential, (1952). That tenet applies to the cognitive development of adults as well as to that of children. In order to fully understand and utilize effectively the information provided, learners must go beyond mere listening and seeing. Bruner calls this kind of learning "the act of discovering...obtaining knowledge for oneself by the use of one's own mind..." (1961). There are four benefits, he says, to providing discovery experiences in an educational setting: 1) the increase in intellectual potency, 2) the shift from extrinsic to instrinsic rewards, 3) learning the heuristics of discovery, 4) the aid to memory processing.

Active involvement will cause learners, in this case the teachers, to comprehend the information better, to note its ramifications, and to associate the implied teaching/learning strategies with their own teaching situations. Teachers may retain the learning longer due perhaps to the more intrinsic reward of success in their own class.

The following is an example of an active experience in which participants are discovering something about the physical world, and are sharing their perceptions using language.

Read first:

> The activity you are about to experience is established to help you understand what kind of language functions (purposes) occur naturally as people are involved in a meaningful experience. So you will have data to study at the end of your experience, one person will be the recorder. That person should have pencil and paper and be seated near the table which contains the materials. The other two people will then go to the table. The material you will be working with is the substance in the dishpan. As the two people talk about the substance, the recorder will write down all language heard from her/his two partners. When the experience ceases to be "fun," quit and

then return to read the remainder of the instructions. HAVE FUN!!! (Author's note: the substance is cornstarch and water, mixed to the consistency of thick glue.)

Read when you are finished:

Look over the language data you have collected. Discuss together the following questions: 1) What kind of language (language function) was used most? List examples of those functions. 2) Why are these functions used? 3) How could the experience be broadened? (For example, would it make a difference who the participants were?)

2) *Theoretical principles are better understood, remembered, and accepted through an inductive, illustrative approach.* The presentation of general principles in any format usually requires illustrations so that the principles can be well understood. The more illustrations of a certain concept acted upon by participants, the more it is likely the general principle will be learned. Learning centers, then, provide a concrete learning situation in which participants can test their previous knowledge, revise or add to that knowledge, and generate new specifics based on the principle. Piaget (1952) refers to this evaulative mode as assimilation-accomodation, two sides to the largely unconscious equilibration process.

As an example of how a learning center can provide the illustration for a general principle, here is an activity from a group of centers developed around concepts of the interaction between language and cognition.

Contrived Situations for Oral Language/Creativity

Read first:

We use language for various purposes — informing, entertaining, persuading. These skills can be developed for a student by placing him in a communicative setting, real or contrived, in which he must actually use the communication skills and by providing the student with appropriate information and feedback. A student's creative thinking ability can also be developed through an activity such as the following:

Activty: The Gatekeeper

One person takes the part of a newly hired gatekeeper with strict instructions to let no one pass through the gate he is guarding and enter the property on the other side. The other players approach the gatekeeper one at a time and try to convince him that they are the owners of the property on the other side of the gate and that he should let them through. The gatekeeper on the other hand, must try to present his own reasons for not accepting the alleged property owner's arguments. (e.g. Player 1: Can't you see my name on the mailbox in

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there? Here's the same name on my driver's license. Gatekeeper: Sorry sir, there are a lot of people with the name John Doe.) Each alleged owner should try to come up with at least 5 arguments for going through the gate. The gatekeeper can allow the owner through if he can't respond appropriately to the owner's argument or if he thinks that the owner's reasoning is very good or original. Several gatekeeper-owner conversations can be going on at once but some participants should listen to one player's arguments and then follow him, trying not to duplicate any of the reasoning.

Follow-through:

1. Do you feel that being asked or "pushed" to think of at least 5 reasons was an aid to creative thinking? ("Creative thinking" refers to unexpected or uncommon responses.) Explain further.
2. Did one role, the gatekeeper or the owner, seem more difficult to assume? Why?
3. What do you think would be a good type of evaluation procedure to use for this type of activity with a group of children? Teacher, peer, other?
4. Would this type of activity help a child recognize, analyze, and respond appropriately to various types of persuasive discourse which he encounters in his daily life? Why?
5. Think of similar types of activities to help children develop their oral language and thinking skills and share them with the rest of the group. (e.g., children may select any item from a store for free if they can think of a reason why they must have it and only it.)

When participants have gone through this experience, they are engaged by the leader, or sometimes encouraged through a written directive, to discuss what principles of language learning they have gleaned from the activity. It is not difficult to articulate the general principles that:

a) Children's language ability is determined to a great extent by the type and variety of language input they have encountered and the kind and amount of opportunities they have to produce language.

b) Oral language development for children is a creative yet rule-governed, trial-and-error process which, over a period of time, finally approximates the adult model of a child's speech community and in which errors are just as important as successes for language learning.

c) Children focus on meaning when using language, yet still learn form and structure. Significant others respond primarily to a meaning and only indirectly and infrequently to form.

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3) *Learning general principles through illustrative activities better enables participants to apply the information and to extend the theoretical principles.* Two different theorists have relevant information to this key concept. Bruner (1960) talks about two aspects of the act of learning: transformation, which is the manipulation of knowledge to make it fit new tasks, and evaluation, which is checking whether the information gathered is adequate for the task. Only when a learner understands a general principle can that learner apply the principle in new situations; it is only very young children who engage in transductive thinking where a specific instance relates to another specific instance without including a generalization.

Another way to approach this key concept is explained by Bloom (1956). Although theory and practice cannot be separated, they do involve different levels of cognitive abilities.

Knowing general principles of language learning or instructional strategies is one matter, but applying them in practice is another. Thus, these activities are designed to teach not only the knowledge of general facts but also the methods of applying them in the classroom. A teacher can become much more independent and responsible for instruction by attaining both the level of knowledge and the level of application in this regard.

Discussion questions to provide opportunities for applying the general principles and extending the scope of the application are included in each center. Several examples follow.

a) How would you vary the task to deal with different kinds of describing and with different levels of difficulty?

b) Besides requesting, what other types of practical oral language skills could be developed in this manner (e.g., making introductions, giving directions, making announcements, etc.)

c) A game of this type can be used to aid (1) vocabulary development, e.g., words such as "horizontal" or "shaded," and (2) the use of certain sentence structures, e.g., yes/no questions. What variations of these two areas can you think of in an activity such as this?

d) Can you think of other experiences or stories to dramatize which would involve more verbal interchange and might possibly be used to aid the development of specific vocabulary items, sentence structures, or ways of speaking appropriate for certain social situations? At what age levels would they be appropriate?

e) Think of similar types of activities to help children develop their oral language and thinking skills and share them with the rest of the group. E.g., children may select any item from a store for free if they can think of a good reason why they must have it and only it.

4) *Teachers' learning is greatly increased and enhanced if they have an opportunity to share their knowledge, reactions, and solutions.* Teachers

bring unique backgrounds and perspectives to a session and, after participating in a common activity, they are well prepared to share ideas, discuss problems, disagree with each other — in short, to learn from each other. The instructor does not relinquish his role as a leader for by devising certain activities and certain discussion questions, the group can be moved in certain directions. However, a format such as this provides for many other perspectives. When teachers are given responsibility for part of the learning, not only are they motivated to a greater degree of participation, but their self-image is also enhanced.

5) *A learning center's approach provides a great degree of individualization in a presentation.* As participants are engaged in various activities, the leader is able to move from group to group to listen to the verbal interaction, help with directions, prod with further questions, encourage, provide further information, and answer questions in order to deal with real needs as they arise. Participants, on the other hand, are able to choose centers on the basis of topics they feel a need to learn more about and also on the basis of the amount of active involvement with which they would feel comfortable. Learning centers, then, provide ample materials and experiences for each participant to exactly find their own niche, or "the Match" as Hunt calls it (1969). Since not all teachers are ready to commit themselves to an activity which calls for a great deal of participation, a few centers were devised to accommodate lesser degrees of activity and responsibility. The following center, utilizing a slide/tape presentation, illustrates a minimum level of participation.

Creative Dramatics

Read first:

Creative dramatics is one way in which the oral language development of children can be aided. It is not children's theater, which is a highly contrived, "programmed" situation with memorized lines, props, costumes, etc. Rather, it consists of a stimulus and a loosely structured situation contrived by the leader in which the players have a framework within which to work, but also a good deal of freedom to develop their character, the plot, and the dialogue creatively.

Activity:

Watch the accompanying slide/tape presentation of several groups of children engaged in creative dramatics play and discuss the following questions:

Follow-through:

1. Although a good deal of the creative dramatics shown in these pictures is non-verbal, in what ways do you think creative dramatics can aid a child's oral language development? Try to be specific.
2. Can you think of other experiences or stories to dramatize which would involve more verbal interchange and might possibly be used to aid the development of specific vocabulary items, sentence structures, or ways of speaking appropriate for a certain social situation? At what age levels would they be appropriate?
3. What role, if any, does nonverbal communication play in oral language development?
4. Creative dramatics purports to benefit the development of the whole child. How do you think it helps a child's growth physically, emotionally, socially and intellectually?

PROCEDURE

Let's return to the opening scene and describe how the environment for the learning centers is established. Several key questions guide this analysis.

How are the learning centers introuced? When teachers enter the room at the beginning of their inservice session, they find stations already set up so that instead of sitting in rows waiting for the speaker to begin, they are facing one another in small groups from the very start. Although somewhat threatening at first, the physical arrangement has the advantage of setting a mood which promotes interaction. Often teachers begin one of the activities while waiting for the session to start.

An introduction to the day's activities must do several things: (1) it must motivate and generate excitement, (2) it must communicate objectives of the session by introducing the main concepts to be dealt with in the centers, and (3) it must give adequate information concerning the expected actions of the participants so they can function securely. Prolonged introductions will destroy the mood of interaction, so all of this must be accomplished very quickly.

How can this be done? First, there is a need for carefully prepared comments which give complete yet concise information. Just as important is enthusiasm on the part of the leader. If there is doubt in a leader's mind that the approach is less than wise, the participants will recognize it. Assume that everyone in the room will learn from and enjoy the activities and let them know that. Such comments as the following are encouraging and non-threatening: "Since it seems effective for children to interact with materials and each other, we thought it would be helpful for teachers to do likewise," or "We know you bring a great deal of knowledge about today's subject with

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you already, and we think you will find the activities today will give you opportunities to share that knowledge."

In keeping with this pattern of encouragement and enthusiasm, one should introduce the key concepts through questions or examples of children's behavior which participants will be addressing. For example in the oral language development centers described in this paper, the authors introduced the activities with a series of questions: "Do you dream using language?...Are there times during the day when you say 'I know what I want to say, only I can't say it'?...Do you know of children in your classes who 'know' certain concepts but who cannot verbalize those concepts?...What, then, is the relationship between language and thinking?...Between language and reading?...These are complex questions, but we hope you'll begin to have some answers as you deal with today's activities." Again be brief, informal, and supportive. Too much information over too long a time will allow participants to get the conflicting message that the centers are but "follow-up activities" to the main speech.

Finally, it is essential to describe each center enough so that informed judgments and choices can be made, but no so thoroughly as to ruin one of the built-in benefits of the centers themselves: the independence in reading directions and carrying out the activities. (The authors have noted that participants at this point will get out paper and pencil, ready themselves to copy directions in each of the centers and, as a result, are distracted from the task at hand. It is most essential, then, to have mimeographed copies of all directions for all centers which can be distributed at the end of the session. Thus, no one needs to worry about writing anything and participants can involve themselves in the activities.) In order to make informed choices, participants need to know 1) the main focus of each center, e.g. "Those of you most interested in learning how problem-solving, creativity, and language influence each other may want to visit this center" and 2) any specific instructions to be emphasized, e.g., "Please be sure to discuss the follow-through questions before you finish because sharing of perceptions is integral to your understanding of some communication processes." Since most of the centers deal with the same general concepts, and since all participants will have copies of directions for all centers, it is more beneficial for all participants to get fully involved in a limited number of centers, rather than to go center-hopping just to see what is available. Experience indicates that approximately a half-hour period for each center is adequate. Four to six participants at a center and no more than a total of 30 to 35 participants seems best.

What is the leader's role? After teachers begin moving into the centers, the leader's role changes — no longer the giver of information and directions. At this point, the leader must blend into the group. For a few minutes participants may mill about, deciding which center they will attend first.

Occasionally, the leader must help individuals decide which center might be most beneficial to them and guide them to participate.

As the teachers are engaged in the centers, however, the leader must exercise great skill in knowing when to intervene in the process. Some work best when left alone. Others welcome questions. Playing the devil's advocate is a technique of intervention that stimulates participants to think further about the theoretical underpinnings of the activity. For example, in the Gatekeeper it is helpful for some to specifically discuss how language and cognition are working together with the leader taking the position that there is little relationship since the activity is just a "game."

Another intervention role played by the leader is that of expander or applier. Since the activities in the centers are adult level, it is curcial that applications be made to the level being taught by the individual participant. "What other way could this work in your classroom?" is an important question. At this point, teachers' knowledge of what might be effective with their own children can be shared, an experience mentioned earlier as one in which a person's self-esteem is often enhanced. Many times this sharing with one another results in curriculum ideas, insights into children's learning processes, and continued sharing of instructional concerns and ideas with colleagues.

Another role the leader plays during this time is "answerer-of-questions-the-participant-always-wanted-to-know-but-could-never-find-out." Many times, participants are afraid to speak up in front of groups. The leader's role as prober, expander, and applier will allow participants opportunity to fully express their curiosity and candidly interact with the leader on an informal give-and-take basis. The leader can suggest specific answers to the participant's question, follow up with suggested references, guide the participant to others already working in that area, or a host of other alternatives. It is one of the few inservice settings in which the authors have truly felt they "took learners where they were" and expanded their personal horizons.

A final role the leader plays is that of encourager. It is characteristic of some participants to "look" at material in a center with some resistance to actual involvement. This often is due to lack of experience with this kind of learning situation. Frequently, much encouragement is needed to motivate participants to get involved. It is important, then, to hve several degrees of participation called for in the centers, ranging from simple listening to discussing to role playing a situation before others. Occasionally, a participant who opts for more passive involvement at first becomes more involved as he sees others actively engaged and enjoying themselves.

How is summarizing accomplished? It is crucial to the learning experience that all participants share insights gleaned from the centers. It is usually helpful for the leader to review the questions used to introduce the centers so that there will be a sense of completion to the exercise. An additional means of summarizing is to ask the participants to share an additional activity generated from discussion in a particular center. Again, the self-esteem experienced by sharing an idea in a supportive environment is an important benefit of learning center inservice.

An evaluation of the session, either oral or written, should follow. As with any model of teacher education, not everyone will reap the benefits of learning centers. On occasion, the authors have seen participants leave the room to attend a more traditional "lecture-listen" session. But much more frequent are comments of how much "fun" the experience was, what a vast number of activities were "internalized" in such a short time, and how enthusiastic participants were to get back to the classroom. Even more important in the light of the goal of teaching theory through practice are the comments that more "understanding" of language processes had been accomplished.

Leaders also need to evaluate their own behavior and evaluate whether objectives have been met. In nearly every session, indications have been that more was accomplished in a short time, more immediate feedback was available for the leaders to adapt their intervention techniques, and greater depth of understanding by the participants seemed evident.

SUMMARY

The structure of inservice training, which usually dictates short meetings, often with vague subject matter, does not always help teachers to understand why certain classroom techniques are done or how to significantly change their teaching behavior. Establishing learning centers with adult-level activities which can be modified for children, all demonstrating the same major theoretical tenets, can be a powerful alternative to the traditional structure of inservice teacher education.

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CHAPTER 3

> Music is a universal and material expression of every age group within mankind.

Dr. Samuel Miller has been involved with three Teacher Corps projects at the University of Houston during the past seven years. In this chapter Dr. Miller describes the music education experience as a component for preservice and inservice teachers. Music education is usually one of the first to be eliminated in schools with budgetery problems. However, in Dr Miller's opinion, the need for music education as a preservice and inservice component for all teachers remains crucial.

MUSIC: A FINE ARTS COMPONENT FOR ALTERNATIVE STAFF DEVELOPMENT THROUGH TEACHER CORPS

by Samuel D. Miller

When Teacher Corps was established in 1965 by Congress, its purpose, as stated in the initiating legislation, was two-fold: (1) to strengthen the educational opportunities available to low-income, minority children, and (2) to encourage colleges and universities to broaden their programs of teacher education to better prepare those who would work with low-income, minority children.[1] Typically, in the programs forthcoming from this legislation, intensive efforts in language arts, mathematics, science, related social studies, and generic studies made up the heart of the various preservice training components, and the fine arts were not substantially involved, except perhaps on a casual, informal basis.

The formal inclusion of music, however, occurred within a few of the two year cycles.[2] This inclusion was partially due to the administrative and functional accessibility to the music education staff members and facilities associated with the various cooperating institutions of higher learning, and partially to a realization of the outstanding qualities of this art as well as its educational advantages. Among the most noteworthy of these are:

1. Music is a universal and natural expression of every age group within mankind. Music expression is ubiquitous. It flourishes and is cherished in all past and present, primitive and advanced societies of mankind throughout the world. Thus, it is a human phenomenon too important to be educationally ignored.
2. Music directly contributes to the social, aesthetic, physical, and intellectual development of each school child, according to his individual pattern of growth and development.
3. Music is a tonal analogue of human emotive life. As such, it provides children with marvelous opportunities for active and dynamic emotional release and expression that are both desirable and unique. Thus, music activities may provide a refreshing change of pace in the school day. Furthermore, these activities help in developing sensitivity, awareness of subtleties, and learning modes that are dependent upon particular usage of various human senses and the creative imagination.
4. Music is a subject with its own discipline — its own structures, content, and related skills. Its products are obvious, permanent and precise.

5. Music provides the child with many opportunities for developing self-esteem and self-realization.
6. Music signifies many activities, and every child can succeed in at least one of them regardless of his mental ability. Basic and initial achievement in music activities is not necessarily contingent upon extensive intellectual capacity, and therefore music may provide an opportunity for success to some children who have difficulty succeeding in other subjects. On the other hand, music may be so profound and complex that comprehension of its elements and their usage may challenge the most advance acute minds. Its immortal masterworks are in themselves products of some of civilization's extraordinary individuals who possessed both genius and prodigious powers of invention, investigation, and organization.
7. Music helps the child develop a deeper understanding of various world culture groups, their nature, and their contributions to the general cultural heritage.
8. Music gives the child a source of enjoyment he can use throughout life, and one of its numerous associated professions may provide a future livelihood.[3]

Considered also in the initial stages was the fact that the Black and Mexican-American subcultures, from which many of the target public school populations came, were rich in musical heritage, traditions, and literature. Quite frequently the literature of these subcultures includes a wealth of materials passed on from primary sources through the oral-rote tradition rather than through printed media. It was felt that indigenous music could provide not only an opening key to rapport and more generalized learning, but would also be central to the entire music program. Since a number of the teachers, interns, administrators, and adjunct school personnel including parents were frequently from these particular subcultures, there was an immediate inroad in terms of natural interest and basic firsthand knowledge for implementing the intent through staff development projects, preservice coursework, and the associated curricula of the public schools.

The developlment of Teacher Corps programs during the past decade coincided remarkably well with the emergence of a dramatic over supply of elementary teaching personnel. Upon initial consideration the resultant diminished demand for teachers might seem to present a danger-filled situation for those seeking to carry out lifelong careers as professional educators. But there were also certain resultant advantages not to be overlooked, and Teacher Corps projects made the most of them.

The frantic, continual, and long-standing efforts to search out and place a teacher in every classroom, no matter how limited or well developed their backgrounds and capabilities might be, were relaxed tremendously. For the first time, a period of relative "well-being" and stability settled over the profession. This stable situation gave the profession an unprecedented opportunity to reflect upon itself — its goals, theories, methodologies, and materials — and to analyze its inner workings. The results of this analysis have become essentially manifested in two important outgrowths. The first of these has been the establishment of alternative means for educating children, teachers, and public school staff members, and the second has been the development of an array of accountability systems in professional education.

Since one of the major purposes of Teacher Corps is to provide a research base for education increasing the effectiveness of various delivery systems at all levels, it seemed only natural that experimentation with these two manifestations should be central thrusts of more recent cycles. As a participant discipline, music fit well to the newly established thrusts.

Among the alternative means investigated for delivering a better music program were: mini-courses for teachers taught on the public school campus rather than on the college campus; on-site workshops; preservice training programs that involved university faculty members working with interns and staff members in the elementary classrooms; special evening programs drawing teachers, parents, university faculty members, children, and interns together; special retreats; conferences; individualized projects; and even social events.

The music mini-course, for example, brought seasoned elementary teachers and a university professor together at the public school site. Ways of using music to interject a change of pace in the child's school day were described, discussed, and demonstrated. Teachers were encouraged to sing and play simple songs with the aid of a portaharp. Song records were presented and other basic classroom instruments were utilized to provide tasteful accompaniments to listening records or to highlight the underlying meter-beat and characteristic rhythms. Records coordinated with filmstrips or teacher's guides that concern topics of special interest were reviewed. Among them were *The Smithsonian Collection of Classic Jazz, Primitive Music of the World, Rhythms Today!, Mustic of the Black Man in America, Children's Songs of Mexico, The Small Dancer, The Small Singer, Vol. I and II, Folk Songs of Africa, Folk Songs of Latin America, Folk Songs of the Arab World,* and *Folk Songs of Israel.*[4]

Since school music specialists as well as elementary classroom teachers were among the participants, a great deal of discussion centered upon how a cooperative approach to teaching music could be implemented most effectively. It was decided that the specialist would primarily act as a resource person or facilitator and would be responsible for overseeing the musical growth of the children. On the other hand, the classroom teacher would be responsible for providing basic musical enrichment experiences for children, helping them develop basic concepts about the nature of the art.

A further desired outgrowth of this type of course is that teachers would request placement of the demonstrated records, song materials, and equipment within their respective schools for frequent classroom use. Perhaps music could be utilized effectively to reinforce and complement certain social studies, readings, or class projects. And perhaps, above all, elementary teachers would gain or regain some basic confidence in carrying out basic classroom music activities.

Classroom music activities generally center around the traditional so-called "fivefold" program. The components of this program are listening, singing, rhythmic movement, playing classroom instruments, and creativity. Specific teaching activities might include (1) teaching a simple listening lesson from a given record and stressing music elements and associated historical, social, and aesthetic information; (2) accurately teaching simple songs using the voice, instruments, or records; (3) introducing and using basic rhythmic activities (including folk dances of various culture groups), stressing musical elements and child physical growth and coordination objectives; (4) teaching the important musical instruments (rhythm, melody, and chordal) with songs, rhythmic activities, and listening experience; and (6) developing creative activities, many of which correlate and integrate music with other aspects of the elementary school curriculum.[5]

There are several reasons why it is highly desirable for elementary classroom teachers to be able to carry out at least some of these basic activities with reasonable competence. In numerous public school systems, there are no available music specialists at all (or sometimes specialists are available for only certain grade levels, usually the upper ones), and as a result classroom teachers are required to teach their own music. Because they know their children so well and because they have developed fine generic teaching skills, classroom teachers are often able to teach music in a strikingly effective manner. Sometimes their lessons equal the quality of lessons taught by itinerant music specialists, who frequently service several different schools, teaching up to eleven or twelve different classes and 250-300 students during each school day. Finally, since classroom teachers are with their children throughout the entire day, often in a single classroom, they are free to introduce musical activities as a refreshing change of pace or for integration purposes at exactly those moments when they are needed most to produce the best results.

As another example of an alternative mode for staff development through music we might consider a recent Halloween program held at an elementary school designated as a Teacher Corps site. In this special evening event, several hundred anxious, eager children stood on a school cafetorium stage and sang enthusiastically a program including one song with a text declaring, "The world is black, the world is white, together they make a beautiful sight." It was followed by a grouping of folk songs and dances in costume from the Mexican-American heritage. Teacher Corps interns provided guitar and piano accompaniments. The ongoing permanent staff assisted in preparation, organization and handling the children. The audience was filled with proud parents, administrative staff members, and associated university faculty members. The program directly emanated as an outgrowth of the preservice music component of the particular cycle. No one could doubt that this event climaxed an exceedingly-rich musical and educative cooperative alternative experience for the staff participants. Staff development took place in a subtle, yet forceful, fashion throughout all of the learning and teaching processes leading to the program. Upon completion of the program, it was clearly obvious to all concerned that the program was a success and had offered great personal satisfaction with a sense of significant accomplishment.

On an informal basis — perhaps at the staff retreat, conference, or even social gathering — music, as it affects the lives of children, becomes a frequent topic of conversation. This topic is hard to avoid since all children are musical and partake of the art in one way or another and also because music is an excellent vehicle for knowing about human reality. Conversation usually centers around the listening preferences of children, instrumental endeavors, and various creative behaviors. This conversation, in itself, offers ample opportunities for staff development of a more casual type. Seemingly, the main thing sought is advice on musical guidance.

At such informal affairs, staff group singing, dancing, or listening to small performance ensembles — perhaps a mariachi band — are valued activities, enhancing a general disposition toward mqsic as well as developing an esprit de corps and a good measure of fun. The educational and social benefits of these are difficult to objectively measure.

The staff development that takes place through an incorporated Teacher Corps music program sometimes occurs indirectly through aiding and working with preservice interns as they carry out their music teaching assignments. Acting as members of an assist-and-assess team when evaluation is called for, inservice teachers are themselves quickly drawn up in the learning processes. In most instances, since we are dealing with generic teaching and classroom management skills essential for communication, rather than with in-depth musical content and skills per se, seasoned classroom teachers make excellent judges of the activities taught. In numerous cases, their critiques are the major feedback source to the supervising university faculty and aid immeasurably in the design of appropriate follow-up or remedial activities.

This brings us to the second major trend of the past decade affecting staff development and preservice candidates: the development of accountability systems. These systems, as they were variously developed, inspired an array of new terms — exit competency, behavioral objective, module, mini-program or course, and many more (the aggregation of which was termed "educationese" by one recent reviewer) — and they basically reflect central and timely educational concerns. These concerns focus upon the beliefs that

(1) educational programs must be humanized and individualized,

(2) programs must state the skills and knowledge to be acquired by students at the outset,

(3) programs must provide reasonable ways of measuring, identifying, or documenting teacher and student competency or accomplishment, and

(4) programs must no permit students to progress beyond stated points until they have demonstrated specific accomplishments, regardless of the time required to do so.

A great deal of emphasis is placed upon learning outcomes that are obvious and behavioristic in nature. These concerns were to reach out and touch university and public school staff members, interns, and public school youngsters alike. One of the most effective vehicles for the dissemination of these basic principles was the staff development program of an experimental nature incorporated within Teacher Corps cycles.

Upon first consideration, the art of music, is nonverbal in its message and deals with both affective learning involving inward feelings and emotions as well as with substantive content, analysis, and logic. One might conclude that establishing a program of study so that the basic principles of accountability are met is at least a staggering feat, hardly worthy of the effort or perhaps even a total impossibility. In fact, numerous music educators have said as much. A veritable "pen war" raged within the music education profession over the issue until the traditionalists felt the so-called "threat" lessening in intensity. By then, the imprint of the newer movement was indelibly made, and a number of educators adopted either part or all of the basic tenets. Others, of course, would have no part of it, insisting on their right to academic freedom without infringement.

Interestingly, close scrutiny shows that the performance branch of music study has almost always been traditionally oriented toward demonstrated accountability. There has also been a marked tendency in this direction in music theory. In performance — "applied music" as it is customarily called at the college or university level — students progress from one level to the next demonstrating they can do specific performance tasks. Moreover, they must cover a certain body of pertinent literature. In short, progression from one level of study to the next depends primarily upon observable performance that can be evaluated by a specifically qualified assessment group. In spite of this prescribed plan which involves a fair amount of objectivity, we are forced to recognize the existence of a point beyond which its limitations become painfully evident. For example, most experts would agree that a superb performance of Bach's *Goldberg Variations* by Ralph Kirkpatrick or Glenn Gould (outstanding keyboard artists) far exceeds the performance quality rendered by the fine, even exceptional, graduate keyboard student.

Practically, where the fine arts and mass education of the nation's youth are concerned, there can be great danger in dwelling upon exceptional accomplishments of the superstar rather than upon those accomplishments within the grasp of most — the average, above average, and marginal achievers. The fact is, much about achievement in the fine arts can be defined, expected, and logically demanded. Moreover, learning activities may be sequenced in a logical fashion. The great pity is that so many practitioners within the associated music education professions have not chosen to explicitly state and make these things known through one means or another. Perhaps there is safety in being noncommital. In a recent enthusiastically received speech to the Music Educators National Conference, John Porter, Superintendent of Instruction in Michigan, spoke of accountability and reinforced this point, emphasizing that humanistic subject matter and accountability systems are indeed compatible, now a generally recognized fact.[6]

The question in this case becomes "how can studies in music be defined in precise and practical terms and transmitted through given Teacher Corps staff development and internship programs to youngsters in the associated schools?" To answer this, one must consider carefully the music training of the preservice teacher candidate, for this training constitutes the central focal point of curriculum development, inservice training, and connecting agent between the university, public school, and other associated components in the Teacher Corps cycles.

At the outset it was decided that interns should be held accountable to demonstrate their ability to teach effectively to children lessons involving the five-fold centered activities already outlined — music listening, singing, rhythmic movement, playing simple classroom instruments, and creative or correlative projects. To do this, however, it was also decided that interns needed to develop certain rudimentary music skills. Among these were:

(1) the ability to read simple melodies and sing or play them accurately,

(2) the ability to identify and explain meter signatures in terms of metric beat, pulse, and rhythm of melodies and demonstrate basic conducting patterns,

(3) the ability to identify and explain basic music notation (key signatures, symbols, etc.), and

(4) the ability to play simple accompaniments as indicated by chord symbols using either autoharp, ukelele, piano, bells, or recorder.

All, or nearly all, of these desirable skills can be developed rather quickly if the competence level is set at a basic, functional level and the teaching material is enjoyable and directly useful in the public school situation.

These decisions were not made unilaterally. Rather, the total staff, the university personnel (music as well as non-music), and the interns made them. The first two groups, after the recommended competencies were initially proposed, went through an intensive and rewarding series of sessions devoted to negotiation, agreement and disagreement, and shared learning. This process constituted an exceedingly profitable staff development exercise for all. Indeed, there were fears at first, especially from those who had been out of direct contact with music, that the expertise needed to check out such specific competencies might not exist among the staff.

These fears, however, were quelled as negotiations continued and special information sessions were instituted to go through the various expectations, one by one, to provide complete explanations, the exact plans for implementation, and ample opportunities for questions and answers. Upon final consideration, the expectations were modified and drawn up in a more complete and satisfactory form, and they were presented to the interns for information, further comment, and possible revision.

Thereafter, in several of the cycles, the program of study was set in a modular format which basically included a title, rationale statement, objectives, prerequisite specifications, pre-assessments, learning alternatives, post assessments, remediation, and appended materials.

The modules called for a variety of activities. Cognitive information was required concerning instruments of the orchestra, music notation, teaching materials, and other facets of the program. Formal typewritten presentations were formulated from studies relating to development of a music listening program from pertinent cultural considerations and the contemporary popular music scene. Specified musical skills in rhythmic and melodic reading were demonstrated individually on instruments or with the voice. Most importantly, interns were required to utilize all that was learned for planning and teaching lessons to school children. These lessons were evaluated by assist-and-assess teams which included staff members and the university instructor in collaboration to insure that the criteria competencies were met. Often these lessons were video taped so that interns might study them at their leisure.

The basic outline of MUS-004.00 (HOU) is presented as an example of a music program module. The module comes from the Eighth Cycle Teacher Corps Program of the University of Houston and Houston Independent School District. The Program, a two-year graduate internship leading to certification and a Master of Education degree, was focused on elementary school education, urban education, and the education of Black and Chicano children.

Module Title: Beginning a Music Listening Program from the Pertinent Cultural Heritage and Contemporary Popular Idioms

Rationale

Most youngsters hear popular music played on the radio and television. They are exposed to music stemming from their particular cultural heritage — perhaps at church, in their homes, at folk music festivals, or at social gatherings. It seems appropriate to begin a music listening program, therefore with this type of music and to interrelate and correlate it with facets of their personal lives and the school curriculum.

Such music can also be viewed as a means of learning basic facts about composition: characteristics of the melody, the structure or form (often verse/refrain alternation), harmony (often simple and easy to reproduce on guitar or auto-harp), rhythm, instrumentation (often using electronic equipment and folk instruments). MUS-005.00 (HOU) and its related materials deal more extensively with teaching a listening lesson with emphasis on structural features.

Study of music from a cultural heritage viewpoint provides more understanding of what youngsters already value in their lives. It develops self-pride. It opens the door to appreciation of various other cultures and illuminates their contributions to humanity. Finally, it leads to study and enjoyment of all music through the basic elements.

Objectives

1. The intern will prepare a brief paper outlining characteristic features of Afro-American and Mexican-American music.
2. The intern will develop an annotated discography containing four or five selections from each of the following categories: Afro-American music, Mexican-American music, folk music of other lands, and pop music (rock, soul, gospel, jazz, or American folk). Some of these selections should be drawn from music textbooks, some from the Teacher Corps Resource Center, and some from the "Top Forty" list in Houston.
3. The intern will present at least one of his selections to his class with the purpose of helping pupils develop a multi-cultural appreciation of music.

Prerequisites

There are no prerequisites to this module.

Pre-Assessment

The pre-assessment consists of two parts: (1) the intern prepares and submits to his instructor, through the team leader, his outline and discography; and (2) the intern teaches one selection to his class and presents to the team leader or instructor a video tape of those lessons to be judged on effectiveness in presenting factors concerning cultural musical heritage to the class.

Learning Alternatives

1. Read Samuel D. Miller and Kenneth Muckelroy, "Let's Put 'Soul' in Your Classroom Listening Lesson," published in the *National Jazz Educator*. The article includes a rationale for inclusion of Soul in the music curriculum, and it presents graphically concise analyses of two selections chosen from the "Top Forty" in Houston, April 1-7, 1973. Jermaine Jackson is the soloist.
2. Look through public school textbooks to find examples of folk music from various cultures. Check into teacher's manuals for background information. Preferably go through several grade levels of different textbook series in current state adoption.
3. Study through resource units placed in the Resource Center. Among them are S. Brandstetter (Folk Music from Other Lands), C. Foley (Music for the Culturally Different Child in the Elementary Grades), M. Mahavier and R. Ford (Afro-American, Gospel Oriented, and Mexican American), J. Camp and P. Hoffer (Rock Music), and B. Duncan and S. Johnson (Blues and Jazz Origins and Developments with a Survey of Styles and Artists).
4. Listen to records on your own. Many of the "Top Forty" are recorded on inexpensive 45 rpm discs.
5. Read books or articles on these areas. You will find in the Resource Center, Eileen Southern's *The Music of Black Americans*, a history, and her *Readings in Black American Music*, a most interesting collection of reading ranging from slave days to Mahalia Jackson and William Grant Still. Both are published by Norton and Company, Inc.
6. Design your own learning alternatives.

Post-Assessment

The post-assessment consists of two parts: (1) the intern prepares and submits to instructor through the team leader his outline and discography; and (2) the intern teaches one selection to his class and presents to the team leader or instructor a video tape of those lessons to be judged on effectiveness in presenting factors concerning cultural musical heritage to the class.

Remediation

Remediation procedures would include those activities designed by the intern, his team leader, and/or the instructor.

The Eleventh Cycle Teacher Corps Program, currently located within the same educational milieu as the English Cycle, also includes a music component. While again closely coordinating university instruction with public school teaching and observation activities, it is not specifically a modularized program. Yet, the same general types of intern performance outcomes are expected. As an additional feature, however, fewer interns are involved in the preservice portion of the program, and a greater emphasis on staff development through a number of already outlined activities has been made.

In discussing the music component of these particularly relevant Teacher Corps cycles, we conclude that the results tightly involve learning processes affecting the educational behavior of a number of different people at various levels of the profession — school staff, university personnel, interns, and public school students. It is exceedingly difficult to talk about one group — the staff — and its development, without discussing all of the others. The programs, their thrusts, and activities were exceedingly integrated to the point where all persons involved went through an alternative learning development program and transformation. This alternative program, because it came during this particular period of American education, because it involved minority children, inner city schools, onsite instruction, and staff development, offered a most unique and rewarding experience. Therefore, unexperienced awareness of pertinent cultural background was coupled for many participants with newer educational theory and practice. Additionally, of course, is the fact that the beauties and joys of music were incorporated in a planned, educational, and relevant way. And regardless of the format, the student population, or the particular thrust, music lent itself easily to successful incorporation.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Title V-B of Higher Education Act of 1965.

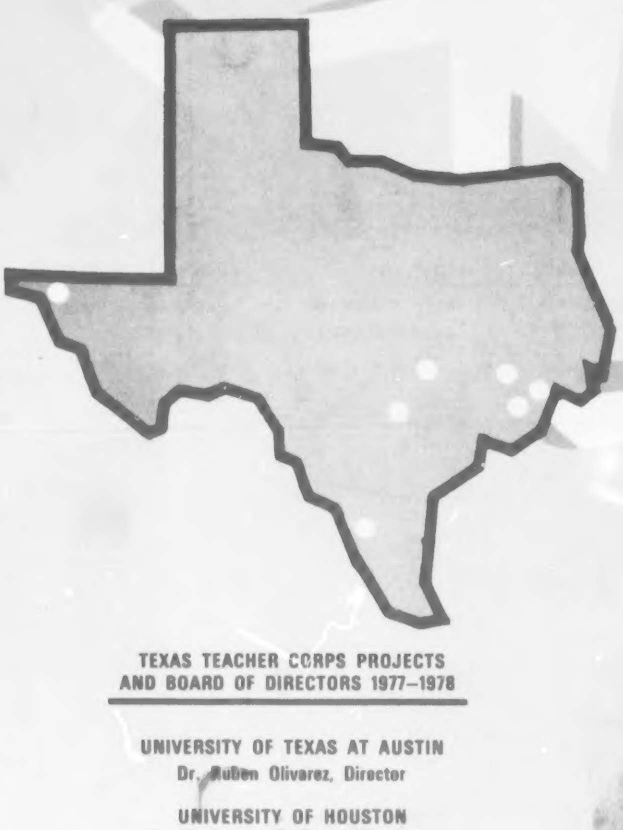
[2] Cycles six, eight, and eleven utilizing professorial personnel from the University of Houston are examples. These particular cycles included staff development and preservice programs in art as well, and they will be the cycles around which most of the present discussion centers.

[3] The statements are based on those drawn up by the writer and his colleagues in collaboration and statements found in *Music in Elementary Education,* Austin, Texas: Texas Education Agency, 1974, bulletin 743, p. 1.

[4] Respectively, these albums may be identified as Smithsonian Institution #P6 11891; Ethnic Folkways Library #FE 4581 (selected and edited by Henry Cowell); Silver Burdett Records #81 18P-00927 and book (Edna Doll and Mary Nelson); Bowmar #B-1442/145S (by ALbert J. McNeil and Roberta McLaughlin); Bowmar #B-112 (by Roberta McLaughlin and Lucille Wood); Bowmar #B-550 (edited by Lucile Wood); Bowmar #B-525 (by Roberta McLaughlin and Lucille Wood); Bowmar #B 4001 (by Roberta McLaughlin); Bowmar #4004 (by Roberta McLaughlin); Bowmar #B-3009 (by Sally Monsour); and Bowmar #B 4010 (by Roberta McLaughlin).

[5] These activities were drawn up by the writer and his colleagues in collaboration.

[6] John Porter, Superintendent of Instruction, Michigan, "Accountability: Humanistic Goals," speech delivered to the Music Educators National Conference, Atlantic City, March 11, 1976.



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